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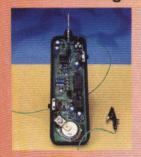
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Beyond 2000

Predictions anyone?

By Gregg Grant

INTRODUCTION

No? I can't say I'm surprised. Nothing – someone once said – dates so rapidly as the future. When Aldous Huxley's Brave New World came out in 1932, most people thought it was a terrifying view of what lay ahead. In retrospect, it forecast nothing so much as the somaphoric drug culture of today.

George Orwell's bleakly depressing 1984 predicted neither computer control nor the re-emergence of the Spiv – tarted up for the 1980s – as the Yuppie. It did however tell its readers a great deal indeed about immediate, post-war Britain.

On another level the television series Star Trek is as good a guide as you can get to the hemlines of the 'swinging sixties' this side of a 60s revival edition of Vogue magazine. As to the realities of space travel...let that be!

This, you may say, is all very well. You've chosen some easy targets for a bit of good, knockabout journalism. OK, point taken. Now let's see if scientific technology has fared any better in the prediction game.

TRUST ME, I'M A SCIENTIST

When looking into the future, it seems logical to go to those who, the majority of us feel, are best placed to judge such matters: scientists and engineers. Sadly the record of scientists in the prediction business has been outstandingly undistinguished, to put it mildly. This appalling track record was encapsulated in a law in 1982, by no less a person than the science fiction writer and futurologist Arthur C. Clarke. This law states that 'when a distinguished but elderly scientist states that something is possible he is almost certainly right. When he states that something is impossible, he is very probably wrong.'

The evidence for this began to accumulate much earlier, the first inventor-originator to come up against the law being Galileo, in 1610. Under investigation by the Church for dar-

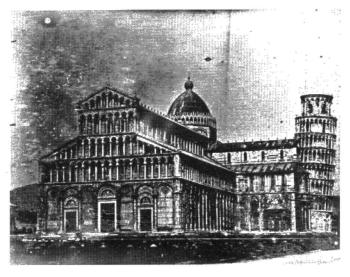


Figure 1. An early Daguerreotype illustration of Pisa, featuring the leaning tower, by Ellis, 1841. (Science & Society Picture Library)

TECHNOLOGY AND THE NEW MILLENNIUM

The advent of a new era is usually a time for reflection and stock-taking. The millennium currently approaching Platform Earth is no different. Reflecting on the progress of electronic technology over the second half of the millennium now passing away is sobering, to say the least.

To the Victorians and their successor, the Telegraph was the epitome of technical progress, along with the Trans-Atlantic cable system that was its highway. To pre-World War II Britons, the Television was no less marvellous. Yet, one has passed away, and the other is being changed significantly.

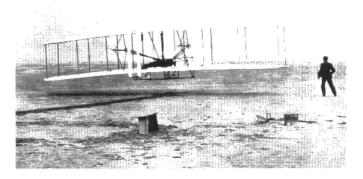


Figure 2. Orville Wright 1871–1948) making the first powered and sustained flight at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, 17 December 1903. (Science & Society Picture Library)

ing to suggest that Jupiter had moons, his views were forwarded to some professors of astronomy for their views. They replied to the Inquisition that since these so-called moons were invisible to the naked eye, they couldn't possibly have any influence on planet Earth. They obviously, therefore, didn't exist!

In 1827, the German physicist Georg Simon Ohm published the law called after him, the first such law to link voltage and current to resistance in an electrical circuit. It was immediately denounced by a number of physicists and so-called electrical 'experts.' Indeed it would be 1841 before Ohm's work was vindicated, when the Royal Society awarded him its Copely Medal. Shortly thereafter, he began to be recognized for what he was: a clear-thinking original.

Just as the learned professors refused to look through Galileo's telescope, so would Louis Daguerre suffer from the arrogance of the 'experts' of his day. In 1839, he announced his process for creating a silver image on a copper plate, termed a daguerreotype. An early example of this is shown in Figure 1. This photograph, a view of Pisa, featuring the Leaning Tower, was dismissed by a variety of authorities, none of whom took the trouble to either talk to, or examine, the inventor or his method and

In 1896, that Victorian scientific icon Lord Kelvin – he of the temperature scale all scientists know and prefer – stated bluntly that he had 'not the smallest molecule of faith in aerial navigation other than ballooning.' Seven years later, this view became dated, to say the least.

As the Wright Brothers – shown in Figure 2 with the younger one, Orville, at the controls – were taking to the air in their earliest proving flights, they were attacked from another quarter. The Canadian-American astronomer Simon Newcomb – who knew a considerable amount about the earth's atmosphere – wrote an

article whose ending was far from encouraging for what would rapidly become a new form of transport.

Newcomb explained that no conceivable combination of materials, machinery or motive power could be brought together in a vehicle that would lift into the air with a human being on board. A fortnight after his death in 1909, Louis Blériot became the first man to fly across the English Channel and the Englishman Henri Farman had completed the first flight of 100 miles duration.

Nor did matters improve as the century progressed. In 1937 Lord Rutherford - laden with distinctions and probably the greatest living experimental physicist - proved that his skills as a prophet were every bit as underwhelming as that of his predecessors. When a journalist asked what the effects of splitting the atom would be, Rutherford replied that if anyone jumped to the conclusion that a power source lay within the transformation of atoms, then that person was talking moonshine. Less than 20 years later the British nuclear engi-Christopher Hinton opened Calder Hall, in Cumbria, the world's first nuclear power station.

Nothing, perhaps, epitomizes the last half of the present century in quite the same way as spaceflight does. Yet it too had its detractors, not least the British Astronomer Royal. Sir Richard Woolley. In 1956, he stated that spaceflight was 'utter bilge'. In the following year Sputnik, the world's first satellite, was launched.

Later Woolley, through his official position, became a member of the committee advising the United Kingdom (UK) government on - wait for it - space research! It need hardly be observed here that, by and large, the UK has never had anything that could be remotely termed a space programme.

ENGINEERS ARE NO BETTER

If scientists can hardly be said to be prescient, engineers are equally as lacking in foresight, as the development of electrical power shows.

By the final quarter of the nineteenth century, the inventive gifts and technical initiative of a number of individuals were making significant advances in



"WHAT WILL HE GROW TO?"

Figure 3. The Punch cartoon referred to in the text (25 June, 1881, reproduced with permission of Punch Ltd)

developing electrical power for commercial and public utility applications.

One of these developments would be roundly dismissed by no less a person than the Engineer-in-Chief of the British Post Office, Sir William Preece. His béte noir was the newly invented Electric Light of Thomas Edison, which, Preece thought was an absolutely fatuous development. In fact the

humorous magazine Punch displayed far more foresight in its 1881 cartoon, shown in Figure 3, than Preece appeared capable of.

Nor was Thomas Alva Edison much better as a prophet of future trends, despite his Whilst well 1,093 patents. aware that his Phonograph for example could record music, he nevertheless thought that it would really come into its own

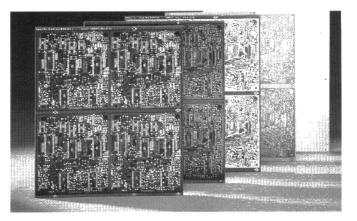


Figure 4. Five printed-circuit boards illustrating the various stages of manufacture in the 1980s. (Science & Society Picture Library)

as a device for recording the last words of the dying!

In 1943, Thomas J. Watson, the founder of the International Business Machine (IBM) Corporation stated that, in his anything but humble opinion, the world market for computers would be small indeed. He envisaged no more than five being sold, world-wide.

Six years later, technical journalists proved that they too were just as disastrous at forecasting the future as everybody else had been. The American magazine Popular Mechanics, whilst acknowledging that ENIAC - the world's first general purpose computer - had 18,000 valves and weighed 30 tons, those of the future would be far more versatile. They'd probably require no more than 1,000 valves and weigh as little as 1.5 tons.

And this at a time when the valve was known to be cumbersome, inefficient and powerhungry to a degree. However, a replacement for the valve was being actively sought in a number of research laboratories, resulting in the transistor and integrated circuit. Today, most electronic circuits are made up of vast numbers of integrated circuits mounted on a printedcircuit board as illustrated in Figure 4

Sadly, it gets worse. In 1961, some 12 months before the launch of the world's first communications satellite, Telstar, the United States Federal Communications Commissioner T.A. Craven said that the chance of launching satellites to provide better television and telephone services was virtually nil!

And this, some 16 years after a former Royal Air Force (RAF) communications officer, one Arthur C. Clarke, had prophesied that the first use of satellites would be in the communications field.

So, how is it that science fiction writers are far better at the prediction game than scientists, engineers and technical journalists? After all very few of them - Arthur C. Clarke excepted - have had an engineering or scientific training.

That fine practitioner of the genre, Ben Bova, hinted that such a training was, in all probability, the least satisfactory background for a futurologist. Bova observed that no scientist

or engineer, working for the majority of Western governments, would predict the sort of semi-accidental discovery - a good example of which is the integrated circuit - that would change the world. He highlighted the electronics industry circa 1950 as an illustration.

If, as Bova pointed out, a journalist had asked any government-employed engineer or scientist at this time how they saw the future of electronics evolving he - or she - would have got a fairly predictable reply. Far smaller valves, working at increasingly lower voltages added to an increasing use of plastic for the enclosures, would have been the limit of their imaginations.

At this time, however, science fiction writers were talking of two-way wrist radios and pocket-sized computers, not because they'd had an insight that silicon and germanium would subsequently prove to be the way ahead, nor because they had a hotline to Bell Labs. It was simply that their instincts told them that something had to be done about the sheer bulk of the electronic devices of the day.

History played a part too. The earliest steam engines – a good example of which is shown in Figure 5 - were massive, noisy and gluttonous of whatever fuel they used.

This was what could be called - indeed was - first generation technology. Compare Figure 5, however with Figure 6, the latter representing about a century of engineering progress.

To men like Bova, 1950s radio gear was the first generation technology of the electronics business. It seemed obvious therefore that progress would - broadly - follow much the same pattern as it had previously done with the steam engine, the internal combustion engine and a number of other machines.

Aware of the technology all around them - and the science underpinning it - they used both to drive their imaginations forward.

For scientists, engineers and technical and scientific journalists - the latter pair almost always coming from a scientific technology background - such everyday devices act as constraints, an advanced braking

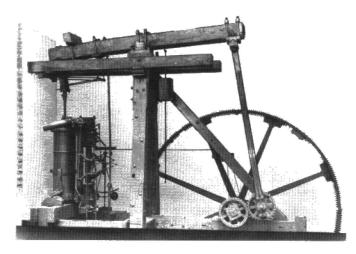


Figure 5. Boulton and Watt rotative engine of 1785. (Science & Society Picture Library)

system on too vivid an imagination. Research funding, government patronage, career prospects and other forms of advancement all conspire to ensure that scientists, engineers and - yes --even technical and scientific authors stay within the long established guidelines of their fields and/or professions. Little wonder therefore that no government or academicallyemployed researcher, engineer or scientist will upset this steadily trundling applecart.

THE FUTURE

We are – generally speaking –

made by our materials and the machinery we fashion from them. Not for nothing have historians termed certain periods in our past the Stone Age, the Bronze Age and so on. Currently, we're in the Silicon Age and the major machine of our time is the computer.

When Isaac Newton published his Principia in 1687, the sophisticated machinery of the day was the clock. Newton looked on the workings of nature as an example of superb and elaborate clockwork. As the clock came to dominate everyday life, so the concept

struck a powerful chord in the mind of man, one that took a great deal of shifting when, later, it became obvious that nature's clockwork was less than perfect.

When John von Neumann put forward his concept of the series computer, arranged in what's come to be known as the von Neumann architecture in 1945, he created a machine which has dominated all our lives since. Look again at Figure 4: circuit cards such as these are familiar to virtually everybody who has a home computer. The device and its peripherals such as the Visual Display Unit (VDU) and laser printer, have had a profound effect on late twentieth century human beings: we have been conditioned by its structure, opcrating technique and general ergonomics.

Given this, I sense that a number of powerful factors and people for that matter will ensure that they become, if I can put it this way, the Newtonian clock paradox of the next couple of hundred years or

Therefore, when looking into the future - no matter how far - we should be aware of being too influenced by our present, by what we're familiar and comfortable with. One modern example of how attached we've become to what's familiar, what's part of our mindset, is the shape and size of the TV and VDU screens we

Indeed if any area is ripe for improvement this is it. Already the Laptop computer has pointed the way to a far smaller, slim-screen future. Shortly, too, we'll have to find a successor to silicon for there is - at most -- about one more order of magnitude to be had from present-day integrated circuit manufacturing techniques.

Will we succeed in these and other developments, many of which we can only vaguely envisage? Of course we will! Why? Simply because, as Arthur C. Clarke pointed out long ago, if something is desired by a sufficient number of people, however unlikely the something may seem at present, it will be achieved eventually. And we have proof of this: simply look back at the

twentieth century! [995019]

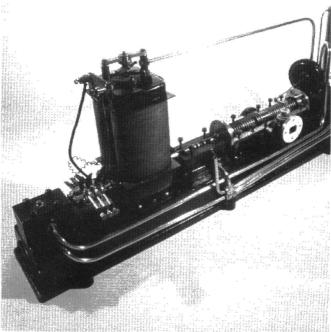
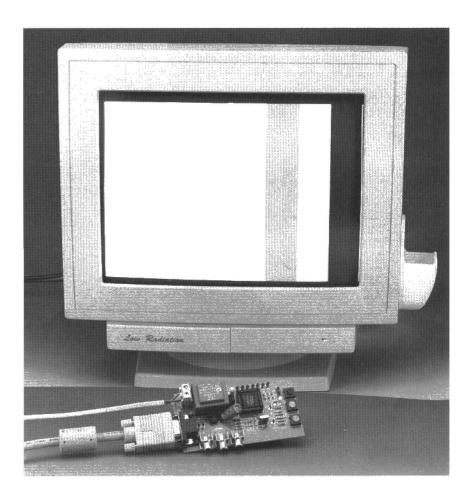


Figure 6. Parson's steam turbine and high-speed dynamo of 1884. (Science & Society Picture Library)

VGA display tester

check those computer displays

The portable test instrument described in this article supplies RGB test signals for VGA colour displays as used in many of today's computer systems. The tester supports line frequencies of 31-83 kHz, and raster frequencies of 55-114 Hz, with selectable sync polarity as a useful extra. The VGA tester not only allows 'suspect' displays ('super bargains') to be tested on the spot, it is also great for computer service and repair shops.

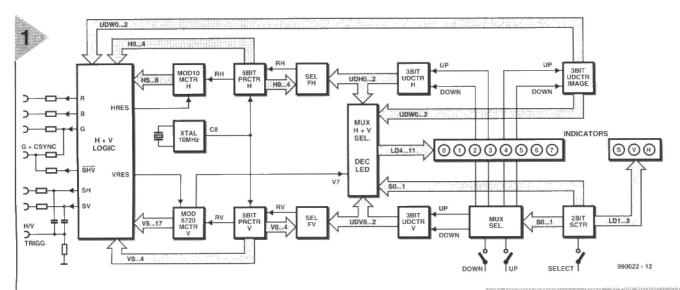


Features

- 8 Horizontal frequencies from 31-83 kHz
- 8 Vertical frequencies from 55-114 Hz
- 8 Testcharts
- Any combination of horizontal, vertical frequencies and testchart
- All frequencies at crystal stability
- Mode selection using 3 pushbuttons
- Display: 8+3 LEDs

Classic construction using discrete parts, or integrated programmable logic, well that is not an issue in this case. If a an 'all-discrete-design' strategy were followed, a test instrument like the one described here would require one or two dozen integrated circuits and a massive amount of passive components. By contrast, the use of a programmable logic component (like a PLD) results in a compact and extremely useful instrument that is eas-

Design by W. Foede



ily reproduced at a reasonable price.

On the downside, the programmed logic component 'hides' its activity, so that its function is not apparent at first blush, and modifications, well they are almost impossible to implement. Because of this, we will give a fair amount of attention to the contents of the EPLD used in the VGA Tester.

EPLD, INTERNALLY

For a change, the block diagram of the VGA Tester, Figure 1, may be said to provide more information than the actual circuit diagram! The upper part deals with the horizontal sync frequency (also called line frequency), the lower part, with the raster (picture refresh or simply 'vertical') frequency. The central clock

Figure 1. Block diagram of the VGA Tester, with special attention given to the logic blocks in the EPLD.

Figure 2. Circuit diagram of the VGA Tester.

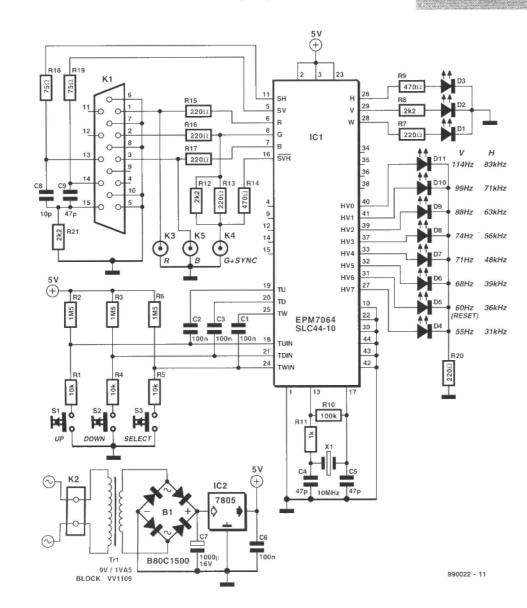


Table 1. Modes and indicators

Mode 1: Setting: line frequency (H) Display: LED on, bright

> Operation: UP: frequency up, DOWN: frequency down

Line fr Divider (exact	equency in ly) Displa		Mode LEDs S V H
10k÷12 83.333		•	OOX
10k÷14 71.429	71		
10k÷16 62.500	63		
10k÷18 55.556	56		
10k÷21 47.619	48		
10k÷26 38.462	38	interlaced	
10k÷28 35.714	36		
10k÷32 31.250	31	reset	

Mode 2: Setting: raster frequency (V)

Display: LED on, dim

Operation: UP: frequency up, DOWN: frequency down

	Raster free	quency in	Hz	Mode LEDs
Divider	(exactly)	Display		SVH
6720÷13	114.47	114		OXO
6720÷15	99.21	99		
6720÷17	87.54	88		
6720÷20	74.40	74		
6720÷21	70.86	71		
6720÷22	67.65	68		
6720 ÷ 25	59.52	60	reset	
6720 ÷27	55.11	55		

Mode 3 Setting: testcharts

Display: LED on, bright

Operation: UP: next testchart, DOWN: previous testchart

Picture		Mode LEDs S V H
Colour bars	reset	XOO
Crosshatch		
Red		
Green		
Blue		
White .		
Dots		
Lines		

Mode 0 Setting: sync pulses

Display: bright: horizontal; dim: vertical

UP: -SH inverted; DOWN: -SV inverted

Mode LEDs SVH 000

Reset Setting: FH=31 kHz, FV=60 Hz, testchart = colour bars, Mode 0 SEL + UP or SEL + DOWN (in all selections) Operation:

source is a 10-MHz oscillator around X1, which generates the signal marked 'C8'. This signal is applied to two counter chains, each consisting of a fixed-modulo counter and a counter with a programmable divisor. Of course, the counters do not actually divide, they merely count a fixed number of pulses before reverting to zero.

The horizontal (line) frequency is determined by an 5-bit counter, PRCTR H) with 8 adjustable steps, and

18

the modulo-10 counter, MCTR H. All picture contents, the sync signal and the blanking (picture retrace) signal are derived from the modulo-10 counter. This is done to make sure the testcharts remain independent of the programmable divider frequency. Basically the same applies to the raster (V) frequencies. Here, too, we find a 5-bit counter (PRCTR V), which reduces the oscillator frequency in eight steps, together with the modulo-8060 counter MCTR V. Table 1 lists the adjustable divisors, the associated exact values, and the resulting frequencies as printed on the front panel of the instrument. The line frequencies are between 31 kHz and 83 kHz, the raster frequencies, between 55 Hz and 114 Hz.

The two blocks marked SEL FH and SEL FV provide two sets of 8 reset pulses for PCTRH and PCTRV. They are switched using 3-bit counters UDC-TRH and UDCTRV.

Counter UDCTR is the only up/down counter which is blocked for the direct transition from 31 kHz to 83 kHz Under certain circumstances, this jump could cause severe damage to the VGA display under test!

For still testcharts, we need an evennumbered ratio of lines per picture. With 64 possible frequency combinations, things become very difficult indeed, because all frequencies are derived from a single quartz crystal. Moreover, the frequencies should roughly match the usual resolutions offered by videocards on the one hand, and VGA displays, on the other - see the data in Table 2.

The H:V ratio of the two 'fixed' modulo counters has been chosen such that horizontal picture sections only appear interlaced at 38 kHz. With all other pictures, line jumps occur. For these to be eliminated one would need a much more extensive circuit.

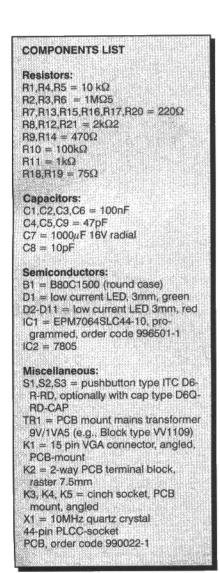
UP AND DOWN

The VGA Tester is controlled with just three pushbuttons. The SEL(ect) button is sued to pick one of four modes. In Mode 1, the horizontal (line) frequency is selected; in Mode 2, the vertical (raster) frequency, and in Mode 3, the testchart. The Mode you have selected is indicated by three Mode LEDs: S, V and H.

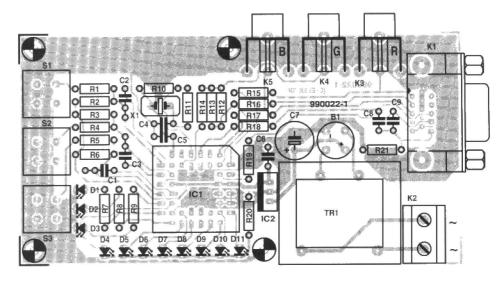
Table 2. Outputs

Socket K1: DC15-HD, pinout to VGA standard

Pin	Symbol	Signal
1	R	$0.7 V_{DD}/75 \Omega$
2	G	$0.7 V_{pp}/75 \Omega$
3	В	$0.7 V_{pp}/75 \Omega$
13	-SH	$TTL/75 \Omega$
14	-SV	$TTL/75 \Omega$
15	H/V	
	Trigger-Signal	$2.2 k\Omega$
Cinc	h outputs	
R		$0.7 V_{pp}/75 \Omega$
В		$0.7 V_{pp}/75 \Omega$
G + s	Scomp	
(SH/S	SV)	$1 V_{pp}/75 \Omega$



The SEL pushbutton clocks a 2-bit ring counter (2BIT SCTR), which drives a dual 4-to-1 multiplexer (MUX SEL) as well as the three Mode indicator LEDs via LD1, L2 and LD3. Depending on the switching position of the multiplexer the pulses generated by the UP and DOWN switches are taken to up/down counters (3BIT UDCTR, V and H). These counters in turn copy the binary equivalents of the 'up' and 'down' pulses to the counter cascades



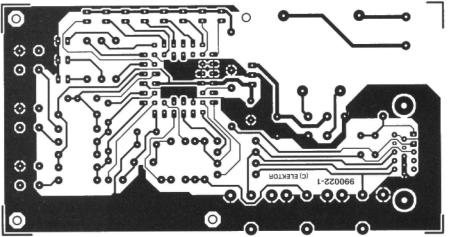


Figure 3. PCB artwork (board available readymade).

which perform the frequency setting.

In Mode 3, the up/down pulses arrive at counter 3BIT UDCTR PICT, which serves to select the testchart selection in the output stage.

The information from the three up/down counters and the 2-bit ring counters are accepted by the MUX H+V SEL block, and used to control the eight LEDs (0-7). This readout pro-

vides an indication of the currently set frequencies (H and V) and

testchart. In Modes 1 and 2, one LED lights brightly to indicate the selected line frequency and one LED lights weakly to indicate the vertical frequency selection. In Mode 3, finally, one LED lights brightly to indicate the testchart selection.

At this point, we should not forget to mention the fourth mode, which is

Table 3. VGA-Tester display resolution

Horizontal	31 kHz	36 kHz	38 kHz	48 kHz	56 kHz	63 kHz	71 kHz	83 kHz
Vertical								
55 Hz	640x480	800x600	800x600	1024x768	1280x960	1280x1024	1280x1024	1600x1280
60 Hz	640x480	640x480	640x480	1024x768	1152x900	1280x1024	1280x1024	1600x1280
68 Hz	640x480	640x480	640x480	800x600	1024x768	1152x900	1280x1024	1280x1024
71Hz	640x480	640x480	640x480	800x600	1024x768	1024x768	1280x960	1280x1024
74 Hz	640x400	640x400	640x480	800x600	800x600	1024x768	1152x900	1280x1024
88 Hz	640x400	1024x768	640x400	1280x1024	800x600	800x600	1024x768	1152x900
99 Hz	800x600	640x400	640x400	1152x900	1280x1024	800x600	800x600	1024x768
114 Hz	640x400	800x600	640x400	1024x768	1152x900	1280x1024	800x600	800x600

bold: value at power-on

actually Mode 0. It is indicated by all four Mode LEDs remaining off. The up/down counters cannot be switched in this state. However, the UP key may then be used to change the polarity of the H sync signal from negative to positive. The same goes for the DOWN key and the V sync pulse. Non-standard sync polarity may be required for some display types.

Mode 0 is also active after the unit is switched on. All counters are reset, and the Mode LEDs are off. When the SEL key is pressed, the VGA Tester switches to horizontal-frequency Mode; pressing it again selects vertical-frequency

mode, and so on.

A special feature: when the UP and DOWN keys are pressed simultaneously, or SEL and DOWN, all settings of the VGA Tester are returned to those for a standard VGA output signal. The test picture is then 'colour bars' at a resolution of 640x480 pixels.

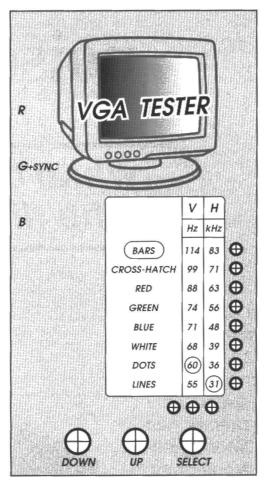
TESTCHARTS — THE LOGIC WAY

The states (output values) of the frequency counters are available as parallel binary words (H0-H8 and V0-V18) at the block marked H+V LOGIC, together with 'position' of the picture selection counter (UDW 0-2). This information is combined into eight testcharts by the H+V LOGIC block. With all testcharts, the timing ratios Sync/Blanking/Picture are based on those for 'standard VGA' (640x480 pixels, H=31.5 kHz, V=60 Hz).

The modulo-counter states also allow the horizontal and vertical pulses to be derived with simple logic. The RGB and sync outputs are taken to a standard VGA socket (high-density 15way), which should enable most displays to be connected-up. Besides the regular R and B components, some monitors require a sync-on-green signal (GS) which contains the colour and a combined (H+V) inverted sync signal. For this type of monitor, three cinch sockets are available on the board. The combined signal is also eminently suitable for triggering an oscilloscope. To eliminate the 'green' DC component, you simply use the AC-coupled input on the oscilloscope. Table 3 provides an overview of the outputs.

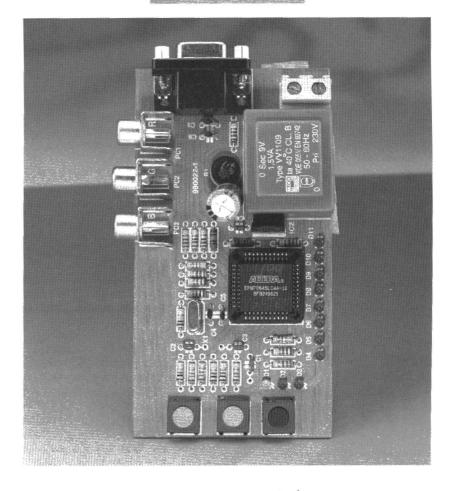
In addition to the EPLD and its peripherals (pushbuttons, LEDs and VGA outputs) the complete circuit diagram in Figure 2 also shows a small 5-volt power supply consisting of a miniature transformer, bridge rectifier, reservoir and smoothing capacitors, and a 5-V fixed-voltage regulator.

Building the circuit on the printed circuit board shown in Figure 3 should not present problems, we reckon, and the same goes for fitting the completed board into a suitable plastic enclosure.



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Figure 4. Suggested front panel layout

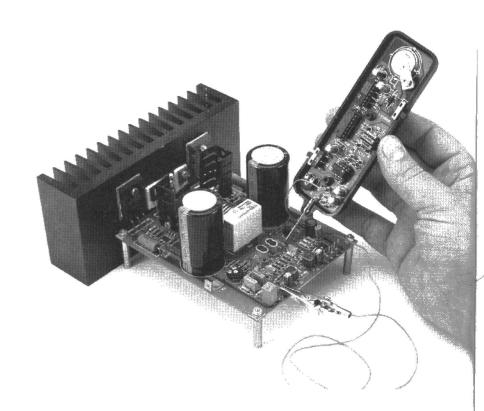


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noise generator

white or pink noise at the flick of a switch

Strictly speaking, noise is a composite of a great number of signals at many, varying frequencies. It is a random quantity which generally has no regular or repetitive character. Although it is usually an unwanted quantity, noise may be used to analyse the performance of an audio system. A noise generator is, therefore, indispensable for much work in an audio workshop. Unfortunately, many amateur audio enthusiasts find the price of noise generators beyond their means. For them, this article describes an affordable, small noise generator that is easy to build.



Main parameters

Frequency range 20-20000 Hz Signal output White noise or pink noise Signal source Pseudo random noise generator Output voltage $2 V_{p-p} max.$ Attenuation About 10 dB Power supply lithium battery Current drain About 4.5 mA

INTRODUCTION

Noise is either artificial (man-made) or natural. Man-made noise is normally impulsive and stems mainly from electrical machines.

Natural noise is mainly due to cosmic electromagnetic radiation that invades a system through either an intentional or accidental aerial, Also, all circuit components generate thermal noise. Thermal noise is completely random and occurs over the entire frequency range from d.c.to infinity. For test purposes in audio equipment, only noise in the audio frequency range of 5-20000 Hz is of course of interest.

A distinction must be made between white noise, red noise and

22

pink noise. White noise has equal energy throughout the frequency range from zero to infinity, but the energy of red and pink noise is inversely proportional to the frequency in a (limited) frequency spectrum. The names white and pink derive from the spectral division of visible colours (white light contains all colours, while red and pink light is filtered)

The power per unit bandwidth of white noise is constant. This means that noise signals of equal amplitude are probable over the entire electromagnetic spectrum. White noise has an energy distribution that is described statistically by the Gaussian distribution curve.

The power density distribution of red and pink noise varies in inverse proportion to frequency: that of red noise at a rate of 6 dB/octave or 20 dB/decade, and that of pink noise at a rate of 3 dB/octave or 10 dB/decade.

one device to another (of the same type!). As this voltage is small, it becomes difficult to design an amplifier whose output is fairly constant with such a wide spread of input voltages. Another is that many semiconductor devices exhibit so-called popcorn noise, which manifests itself, as the name implies, by short, irregularly occurring peaks in the output, which play havoc with the measurement.

It is therefore clear that a home constructed noise generator needs a much more reliable means of producing noise. The present design uses a digital generator, which not only ensures a well-defined output, but has the added advantage of requiring only a (relatively) small supply voltage.

The present design is based on a rectangular waveform generator whose output is applied to a series of shift registers. An XOR gate is used to produce a reset pulse that initiates the

cuitry associated with IC_{3a} forms the (analogue) amplifier and filter section.

The rectangular generator operates at a frequency of 50 kHz. Its output is applied to the clock input of IC₂, which is an 18-stage register. These stages are interconnected in a loop with the output of one linked to the data input of the next. Gates IC_{1c} and IC_{1d} provide the requisite sequence of operation.

Network R_3 - C_3 provides a poweron reset. To ensure that the registers in IC_2 start working correctly on poweron, it is essential that pin 8 of IC_1 is then logic low.

The level of the output at pin 1 of IC_2 is very nearly peak-to-peak, which is too high for operational amplifier (op amp) IC_{3a} . This is, therefore, remedied by potential divider R_4 - R_5 .

Operational amplifier IC_{3a} functions as a voltage follower that provides the requisite low source impedance for the filter between the op amp

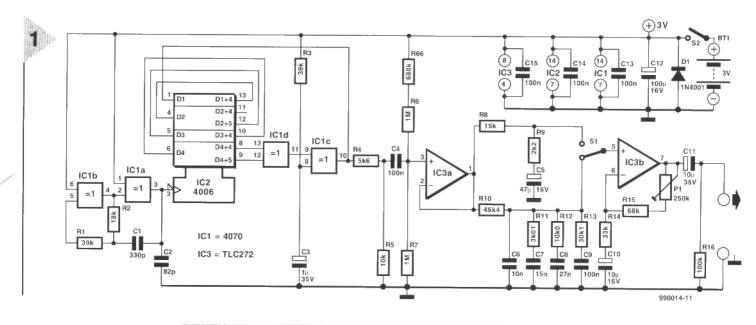


Figure 1. The circuit of the noise generator consists of a digital signal generator section and an analogue amplifier and filter section.

Because of these properties, white noise is particularly useful for measurements with an oscilloscope or spectrum analyser, and pi

or spectrum analyser, and pink noise for measurements that involve a onethird-octave analyser.

DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS

Professional noise generators often operate at the knee of the limiting characteristic of zener diodes, which requires a very stable supply voltage. Other means are reverse-biased diodes or the base-emitter junction of bipolar transistors.

A drawback of most of these methods is that the device used as the noise source has to be selected for several reasons. One is that the generated noise voltage varies substantially from

start of a new count sequence. The signal so generated has a statistically distributed frequency and constant output level, and is therefore similar to white noise. The difference between the two is that normal white noise is random in the time domain, whereas the noise produced by the shift register is a pseudo random noise, that is, a noise that repeats itself regularly. For the present design, this presents absolutely no difficulties whatsoever.

CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

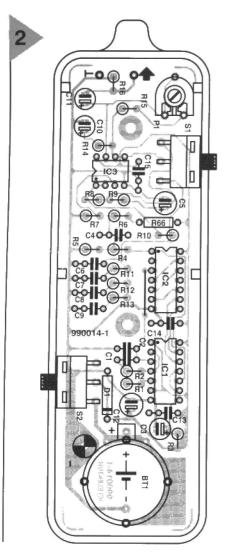
In Figure 2, IC_{1a} and IC_{1b} form the rectangular waveform generator, IC_2 contains the shift registers, and the cir-

and switch S₁.

The supply for IC $_3$ is single and resistors R $_6$, R $_7$ and R $_{66}$ therefore shift the

operating point of the op amp slightly below $U_{\nu}/2$. This arrangement ensures that the op amp can be driven symmetrically. In spite of the low supply voltage (3 V), the op amp provides an output signal of about 2 V_{p-p}.

The output of IC_{3a} is a pseudo random noise signal. Pink noise is obtained by putting the white noise signal through a filter that has a slope of –3 dB/octave. This roll-off is obtained by a four-section RC filter consisting of resistors R₁₀–R₁₃ and capacitors C₆–C₉. The filter covers a frequency range of ten octaves and, because 1% resistors and 2% capacitors are used, has an error of only 0.5 dB. If the capacitors are not selected appropriately, the error



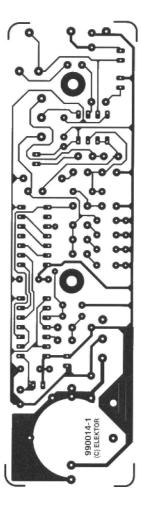


Figure 2. The singlesided printed-circuit board fits exactly in a probe enclosure.

may rise to 2 dB. Whatever, the noise amplitude is suitably attenuated by the filter

The output of the filter is applied to switch S_1 which enables either white noise or pink noise to be selected. The amplitude of the white noise signal is made equal to that of the pink noise by divider R_8 - R_9 .

The voltage drop across capacitor C_{10} is equal to the direct voltage at the operating point of IC_{3a} .

Op amp IC_b amplifies the signal arriving from the switch to give an output signal at a level of $2\,V_{p-p}$ across terminals PC_1 , PC_2

Resistor R_{16} ensures that even when the output is open-circuit, the polarizing voltage for C_{11} is maintained.

The generator is powered by a 3 V lithium battery. A polarity protection diode is not used, since this would lower the battery voltage unnecessarily. If readers want protection, diode D_1 may be used as shown. This will short-circuit the battery if it is connected with

wrong polarity and so protect the generator from damage. The generator draws an operating current of about 4.5 mA.

CONSTRUCTION

The generator is best built on the printed circuit board in Figure 2, which is available through our Readers Services – see section toward the end of this magazine.

Virtually all components should be mounted vertically. Since the board cannot be screwed down, it is advisable to fit it tightly into the enclosure with the aid of some pieces of foam rubber. The specified enclosure is normally intended for a probe.

The output voltage may be adjusted with a screwdriver through an appropriate aperture in the lid of the enclosure or the spindle of the relevant potentiometer may be made to protrude through the lid.

Do not overlook the wire bridge near IC₂ and do mind the polarity of the electrolytic capacitors, ICs and

Parts list Resistors: $\begin{aligned} R_1, R_3 &= 39 \text{ k}\Omega \\ R_2 &= 18 \text{ k}\Omega \end{aligned}$ $R_4 = 5.6 \text{ k}\Omega$ $R_5 = 10 \text{ k}\Omega$ R_6 , $R_7 = 1 M\Omega$ $R_8 = 15 k\Omega$ $R_9 = 2.2 \text{ k}\Omega$ $R_{10} = 46.4 \text{ k}\Omega$, 1% $R_{11} = 3.01 \text{ k}\Omega, 1\%$ $R_{12} = 10.0 \text{ k}\Omega, 1\%$ $R_{13} = 30.1 \text{ k}\Omega, 1\%$ $R_{14} = 33 \text{ k}\Omega$ $R_{15} = 68 \text{ k}\Omega$ $R_{16} = 100 \text{ k}\Omega$ $R_{66} = 680 \text{ k}\Omega$ P_1 = preset potentiometer, 250 k Ω Capacitors: $C_1 = 330 \text{ pF}$ $C_2 = 82 pF$ $C_3 = 1 \,\mu\text{F}, 35 \,\text{V}, \text{ radial}$ C_4 , C_9 , C_{13} – C_{15} = 0.1 μ F C_5 = 47 μ F, 16 V, radial $C_6 = 0.01 \, \mu F$ $C_7 = 0.015 \,\mu\text{F}$ $C_8 = 0.027 \, \mu F$ $C_{10} = 10 \,\mu\text{F}$, 16 V, radial $C_{11} = 10 \,\mu\text{F}$, 35 V, radial $C_{12} = 100 \,\mu\text{F}, 16 \,\text{V}, \text{ radial}$ Semiconductors: $D_1 = 1N4001$ Integrated circuits: $IC_1 = 4070$ $IC_2 = 4006$ $IC_3 = TLC272CP$ Miscellaneous: BT₁ = lithium battery Type CR2032 with holder for board mounting S₁ = right-angled slide switch with 1 change-over contact for board mounting S₂ = right-angled slide switch with 1 on contact for board mounting Probe enclosure Printed-circuit board, Order no. 980014-1

diode D₁ if used.

A test prong, which is readily made from a 25–50 mm (1–2 in) length of stout copper wire, must be connected securely to terminal PC_1 ; the earth connection is best made from a short length of stranded, insulated circuit wire soldered to PC_2 .

TESTING THE GENERATOR

The generator cannot really be tested properly without an oscilloscope. Check that the signal at pin 3 of IC₁ has a rectangular waveform and a frequency of 50–55 kHz. When that is so, the signal at pin 1 of IC₂ should be a pseudo random noise signal. This is seen on the scope as two limiting (horizontal) lines separated by a distance equal to the supply voltage. When the time base of the scope is adjusted appropriately, there appear between

these two lines at irregular distances level jumps, visible as faint lines, which represent the actual noise signal.

It is advisable to check the operating point of IC3, since this may stray from device to device. To this end, remove IC1 and IC2 from their socket and apply a sinusoidal voltage at a mid-range frequency and at a level of 1 V_{rms} between pin 1 of IC₁ or IC₂ and earth. This signal should be visible undistorted at pin 1 of IC3 Increase the level of the sinusoidal signal until the peak of the voltage at pin 1 of IC3 begins to flatten. This flattening should be absolutely symmetrical at both the positive and the negative peaks. If this is not so, the operating point should be adapted slightly by altering the value of R66 as required. This procedure is essential to ensure maximum undistorted output voltage. In the prototype, the combined value of R₆+R₆₆ is exactly 1.7 MΩ.

Set S_1 to white noise output and turn P_1 fully clockwise, whereupon the noise signal should be clearly visible on the scope connected to the output of the generator.

OPERATION

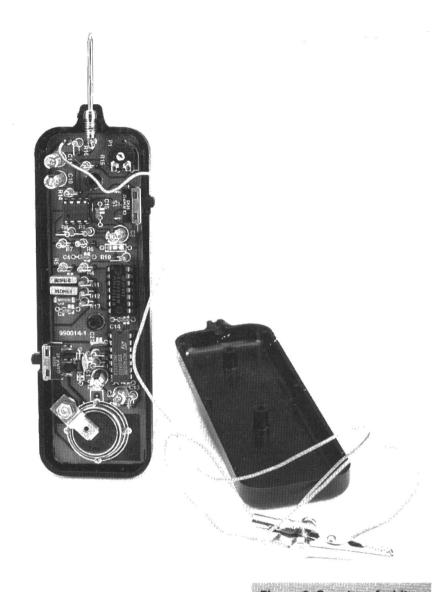
The spectra of white noise and pink noise are shown in **Figure 3**. The frequencies contained in the white noise signal are evenly distributed over the audio range up to about 20 kHz. The response dips a few dB towards 30 kHz, but the actual level of the spectrum is, of course, not important.

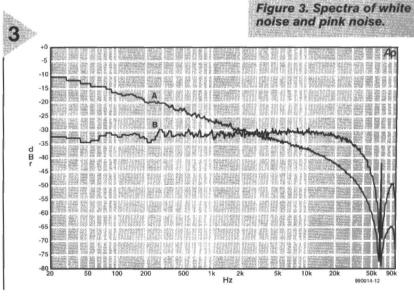
In practical operation, the output signal of the generator can be applied to any accessible point in the equipment on test by simply touching it with the test prong. Take care, however, not to overload the equipment on test. Note that noise signals contain very high peaks that may damage tweeters. A white noise signal enables, for instance, testing the operation of a volume control or a sound level control.

Pink noise may be used to check room acoustics or the effect furniture or curtains have on the performance of loudspeakers. This enables the loudspeaker to be trimmed to the room requirements.

In any case, it is advisable to carry out a number of experiments with the noise generator before using it in practical testing.

[980014]





GREAT NEWS FOR YOU!



Over the past 11 years ULTImate Technology supplied more than 20.000 commercial versions, but also thousands of educational versions, which, having no Gerber Interface (high resolution photoplotter) are not suitable for commercial use, but are otherwise, identical to the, naturally far more expensive, commercial versions. After a worldwide test on Internet the ULTIboard Studio evolved, with the same well-considered limitation, at a price at which everybody can afford

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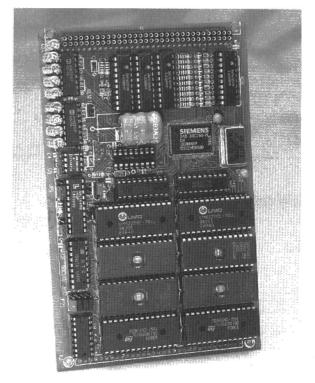


SEE ALSO THE REPLYCARD ELSEWHERE IN THIS ISSUE

evaluation system for 80C166 (1)

part 1: introducing the 16-bit SAB80C166

This is the first time Elektor Electronics presents a development system for a 16bit microcontroller. We've chosen the SAB80C166, which is generally known as the 'generic device' in the C166 series of microcontrollers manufactured by Siemens. This the first instalment of an extensive, multi-part article covering hardware, software and application examples, all aimed at introducing you the world of 16-bit microcontrollers.



In the field of microcontrollers, product diversification has been evident for many years. In the early days of microcontroller technology, only a couple of different types were available. Initially, these chips were packed with just about anything technically feasible at the time (still not much by today's standards). Soon, however, the combined forces of market and user demands brought about a change from general-purpose to specialized products. This resulted in whole families of microcontrollers, with 'members' having preciously little in common except the instruction set.

A fine example is the MCS51 family

from Intel, with the famous 8051 as the 'generic device' from which dozens of versions were derived over the years. Until recently (well, a few years ago) only a few of these derivatives of the 8051 were generally available, and some of these were at the heart of our best-selling projects like the Elektor Electronics 8052 BASIC Computer, 80C32 Single-Board Computer and Match-Box BASIC Computer, to mention but a few.

Meanwhile, however, ultra-fast controllers have become available with 8 to 16 pins, a small instruction set (RISC) and a just a basic complement of I/O functions. Besides general-purpose working horses like the 80C51 you now find state-of the-art controllers with massive

memories, tens of interrupt sources, A/D converters, registers and I/O lines. And they're fast, too!

THE 80C166: YOUR TAILOR-MADE CONTROLLER

The SAB80C166 from Siemens has been with us for about five years now and certainly belongs in the latter category of high-speed number-crunching beasts. Its clock frequency of 20 MHz and vast number of interrupt sources enable the 80C166 to act as the brains of applications requiring flexibility and very high speed. Typical examples include real-time embedded control

Design by K.-H. Domnick

systems (as used in vehicles), and complex industrial control systems. Because the price of the SAB80C166 recently dropped to less than £10, the device is also a good candidate for advanced applications in the hobby and semi-professional fields. For example, the 80C166 is ideal for simultaneous control of several stepper motors, as the 'brains' in a professional object surveillance system, at the heart of a really extensive model-railway system, and many other applications.

However, to most of you, the interesting thing about the 80C166 will be that it is a 16-bit microcontroller, for which a complete and affordable development system is described.

This fist instalment of the article deals mainly with the controller itself, and the things it can do. Obviously, only a small selection can be made from the vast amount of information available on the 80C166. Datasheets and a user handbook are available free of charge from the Internet — both are supplied as PDF files.

The C166 series has three basic types. Whereas the family members designated 83C166 and 88C166 have 32 kBytes of ROM or Flash memory respectively, the 80C166M comes without this memory. No problem, because the evaluation system to be described provides a much larger external memory.

As shown in Figure 1, the SAB80C166 sports 256 kBytes of addressable memory having the 'Von Neumann' architecture. The device can use one of four bus modes: 8-bit, 16-bit, multiplexed or non-multiplexed. On the development board, the 16-bit multiplexed mode is used. The bus timing is adjustable in many ways, including the insertion of up to 15 wait states. Two different bus mode configurations may be used at the same time. Support for multi-master operation in multiprocessor systems is also possible.

The internal dual-port RAM has a capacity of 1 Kbytes, and is found in the address range 0\$FA00h through 0\$FDFFh. Of this memory, 255 bytes are bit-addressable.

The 80C166 offers five ports with a total of 66 bit-addressable input/output lines or special functions, as well as a port comprising 10 TTL or analogue inputs.

The microcontroller has 98 Special Function Registers (SFRs) and 16 General Purpose Registers (GPRs) per register bank. Changing between 16 register banks is possible, though limited by the internal RAM.

There are 32 freely programmable interrupt sources, of which 19 are

implemented as port pins. Interrupts can be assigned 16 prior-

Figure 1. Architecture of the SAB80C166M.

ity levels, each having four group levels. The response time to interrupt events (in the external memory) is only 600 ns. The interrupt inputs may be programmed to respond to events consisting of a negative or a positive pulse edge.

The Peripheral Event Controller (PEC) comprises eight freely programmable units, and allows 8- or 16-bit data traffic between memory and peripherals in a single cycle. The array of five universal 16-bit timers with a resolution of 400 ns or 200 ns may be employed as timers, gated timers or counters. Two more 16-bit timers, also independently programmable, are used by the 16 Capture/Compare units.

The 80C166 has two serial ports with separate baudrate generators. The ports can operate in synchronous mode or asynchronous full-duplex mode at up to 625 kbit/s. The ten available D/A converters are marked by a resolution of 10 bits, a conversion time of 9.7 μ s and a sampling period of 1.58 μ s. These converters should enable single, continuous and group conversions to be performed without problems.

The watchdog timeout may be programmed to any value between 25.6 μs and 419 ms.

The 80C166 features two power saving modes for battery operation: Power Down and Idle. About 90% of all commands are executed in one cycle, which takes 150 ns at a clock speed of 20 MHz and zero wait states. 16-times-16 multiplication is completed in five cycles, 32-by-16 division, in ten cycles.

The instruction set is remarkably consistent with all commands made up of either two or four bytes. Powerful word, byte and bit commands are also included.

80C166 Board Main features

- → Microcontroller: SAB80C166M
- 40-MHz quartz crystal = 20-MHz clock speed
- > 16-bit mode, multiplexed, segmented
- 64-kBytes RAM (with optional battery backup)
- 64-kBytes EPROM for user program
- 2 serial interfaces, RS232
- ⇒ 16 TTL outputs, buffered
- 16 TTL inputs, buffered, interrupt-ready
- 10 analogue/TTL inputs, protected
- 2 inputs/outputs, protected
- Extension bus

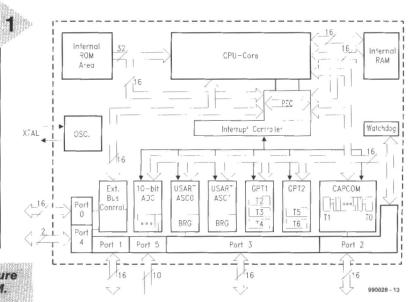
Options:

- ⇔ 64 kBytes RAM or EPROM
- ⇒ 16 or 32 kBytes EEPROM
- Battery for RAM and RTC supply
- Watchdog / battery switchover
- Real-time clock

AROUND THE 80C166

Because the generic 80C166 has only limited internal memory resources, our development system, of which the block diagram is shown in **Figure 2**, must have a minimum amount of external hardware around the microcontroller. The board contains the following hardware components:

- 64 kBytes RAM (optionally batterypowered)
- 64 kBytes EPROM containing the program
- ⇒ 16 or 32 kBytes EEPROM
- ⇒ 16 buffered TTL outputs
- 16 buffered TTL inputs with interrupt ability
- ≈ 10 protected TTL/analogue inputs
- ⇒ 2 RS232 interfaces
- → 2 protected bidirectional in/out-



puts

- extension bus for add-on cards
- ⇒ battery for RAM and clock supply
- watchdog/battery switchover
- real-time clock

BUS TIMING

Of the four available bus modes, the development system only employs the multiplexed 16-bit version. The 16 address bits 0-15 are only available for 50 μ s at the address/data port, and have to be 'extracted' with the aid of latches IC9/IC10 and the ALE (Address Latch Enable) signal. Bits 16 and 17 are available at another port for the duration of a cycle. After the address has been supplied, the 16-bit data transfer process is completed.

A data transfer operation takes 850 ns after a reset (100 ns + 15 waitstates of 50 ns). By reducing the number of wait states to zero, this may be reduced to just 100 ns. Consequently, the memory access time can be anything between 50 ns + data access time = 900 ns, or just 150 ns if no wait states are programmed. Gate propagation times of 15 ns to 35 ns occurring in the chip select circuitry should be deduced from these values. At zero wait states, memory chips with an access time of less than 120 ns should be used. The 50-ns steps are the result of the 20-MHz clock signal, which is derived from a 40-MHz source.

For the program code, the memory is divided into four segments of 64 kBytes each. All chip select signals for the memory are produced by a GAL type 16V8 (IC4), as well as the write signals for all 8-bit memory access operations. Programming details of the GAL will be published in part 2 of this article.

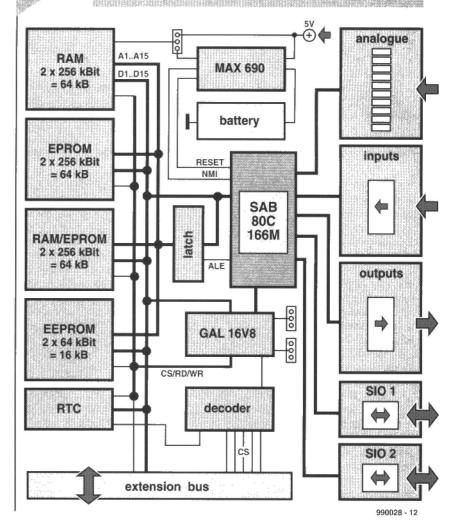
The program start address may be set to any of the following addresses:

JP2 JP1 tuembes		Segment	Address
0	0	1	1\$0000h - 1\$FFFFh
0	1	2	2\$0000h - 2\$FFFFh
1	0	3	3\$0000h - 3\$7FFFh
			0\$8000h - 0\$F9FFh
1	1	0	0\$0000h - 0\$F9FFh

In this way, different programs may be installed, loaded, or called up whenever required. Other memory configurations are possible by changing the GAL contents.

Programs always start at address 0. Because the development board contains volatile memory (RAM) at this address, random bytes are found when the system is powered up. Program code is therefore stored in an EPROM resident segment which is 'mirrored' to

Figure 2. The controller is surrounded by a plethora of peripheral functions.



segment 0 after a reset, or when power is applied. When initialisation is finished, the mirror is disabled by the instruction EINIT (End Initialisation), and segment 0 is returned to RAM. During a reset, controller output RSTOUT# is pulled logic low. It returns to logic high when the EINIT instruction is executed. This signal controls the segment mirror operation as described above.

INPUTS/OUTPUTS

The board offers you 16 outputs, all buffered via TTL components type 74LS541 (or inverted when using the 74LS540). After a reset, all controller pins are set to act as inputs. If output functions are required, you have to declare them as such in your program.

TTL buffers from the 74L\$541 take 16 inputs to the controller. All inputs are interrupt-ready, and five of them may be used as counters. If the input signals have to be inverted, the buffer IC may be replaced by a type 74L\$540.

It is strongly recommended to stock to the use of LS-TTL components at the inputs and outputs, because they are far more resilient against short-circuits and overvoltage than CMOS components. In general, a short-circuit on one of the output pins of the 80C166 means instant demise of the controller.

Ten inputs may be programmed to act as TTL or analogue inputs, the latter with a resolution of 10 bits, and protected against voltage surges or reverse input voltages by simple resistor/zener diode networks. Two similarly protected bidirectional inputs/outputs are available for clock and data signals as required by a serial keyboard or an IPC bus, to mention but two examples. The clock input is interrupt-ready.

There are two RS232 interfaces for communication with the user. SIO #2 is required when the system is used with a monitor program. The reset and NMI (non-maskable interrupt) input are also bonded out to pins.

All inputs, outputs and the 5-volt supply voltage connection are available on three rows of solder pads. Here, different connector types may be mounted:

- 2 x 32-pin pinheader (plug) for flatcable;
- 2 x 32-way socket to enable you to plug on boards containing control

- elements, switching elements, displays, power drivers, power supplies, and so on.
- 2 x 32-pin (a-c or a-b row) or one 3 x 32-pin (a-b-c row) DIN connector as used in 19-inch rack systems.

MEMORY

Six sockets are available on the PCB to hold 64-, 128- and 256-kbit memory components, besides two sockets for 64- or 128-kbit EEPROMs. Memory devices always have to be inserted in pairs (2 x 8 bits = 16 bits). A minimum memory configuration requires RAM (IC11/IC12) in the range 0\$000h-0\$F9FFh, and a monitor or user program in EPROM (IC13/IC14) starting art 1\$0000h. The internal memory and the register array of the 80C166 are located between 0\$FA00h and 0\$FFFFh.

tents (16 kBytes or 32 Kbytes of data) after the power supply or battery is disconnected. Because the access time of these components will be of the order of 200 ns or longer, the necessary number of wait states has to be programmed when accessing the EEP-ROM memory range.

Real-time clock (RTC)

When the real-time clock unit type RTC-72421 is used, decoder IC6 (a 74HC138) has to be fitted. The real-time clock continues to 'tick' when the development system is switched off.

Extension bus

The data/address bus, control signals and six chip select signal of the 74HC138 (IC6) are made available on a 32-way array of solder pads. Singlerow connector systems may be used to

RAM	64.0 kB	2 x RAM 62256	0\$0000h-0\$F9FFh
Controller	1.5 kB	80C166 RAM and Register	0\$FA00h-0\$FFFFh
EPROM	65.5 kB	2 x EPROM 27C256	1\$0000h-1\$FFFFh
RAM or EPROM	65.5 kB	2 x RAM 62256 or 2 x EPROM 27C256	2\$0000h-2\$FFFFh
EEPROM	32.8 kB	2 x EEPROM 28C64 / 28C128	3\$0000h-3\$7FFFh
Decoder	16.4 kB		3\$8000h-3\$BFFFh
CS0#		CS 0 for extension cards	3\$8000h-3\$87FFh
CS1#		CS 1 for extension cards	3\$8800h-3\$8FFFh
CS2#		CS 2 for extension cards	3\$9000h-3\$97FFh
CS3#		CS 3 for extension cards	3\$9800h-3\$9FFFh
CS4#		CS 4 for extension cards	3\$A000h-3\$A7FFh
CS5#		CS 5 for extension cards	3\$A800h-3\$AFFFh
CS6#		Watchdog (MAX 690)	3\$B000h-3\$B7FFh
CS7#		Real-Time-Clock (RTC-72421)	3\$B800h-3\$BFFFh
Free	16.4 kB	Free range	3\$C000h-3\$FFFFh

extend the 80C166 board at both sides.

OPTIONS

The printed circuit board we've developed for the 80C166 development system offers a number of optional functions.

Memory extension 1

Positions IC15/IC16 accept RAMs and EPROMs. Because these devices are not pin compatible, the relevant selection must be set on jumpers JP22, JP23 and JP24. The first, JP21, selects between battery power or 5-V supply. Evidently, EPROMs should only be powered by the 5-V supply — they would drain the battery in a couple of minutes.

Memory extension 2

Positions IC17/IC18 on the board are reserved for 64-kbit or 128-kbit EEP-ROMs. These devices retain their con-

Wait/Ready signal

With the Ready input activated, it is possible to make the controller wait for a period determined by R25-C5. This is only possible via access to certain parts of the GAL, and via IC7 (74HC123). This option should only be used by experts!

The other half of the 74HC123 may be set for the duration of R26-C7 under the control of P1.13. The output is freely available for control and timing purposes.

Battery backup

A 3.6-volt battery is provided on the board to enable the RAM devices to retain their contents. Jumpers JP11/JP21 allow you to select between unbuffered and buffered powering of the RAMs. A MAX690 (IC3) arranges the switch-over between 5-V and battery voltage.

MAX690

This IC in position IC3 has two more functions:

- ☐ If WDI (WatchDog Input) remains open, the watchdog is disabled. If WDI is at TTL level via J3, the watchdog is active. After about 100 ms, a level change should occur at CS6; if not, the MAX690 issues a reset pulse.

FINALLY

That concludes our short description of the 80C166 microcontroller and the basic possibilities of the evaluation board. Whenever you feel this article provides insufficient information, that is entirely due to the practical limitations of a magazine article. Note, however, that anything you may want to know about the SAB80C166 can be found in the (free) databook and datasheets, which you will find indispensable anyway. The book, datasheets and lots of other useful information may be downloaded from this address

Table 3. Information from the Internet www.smi.siemens.com/ics/micro/

Siemens 16-Bit Microcontroller Family

≈ 80C166

Siemens 16-Bit Microcontrollers

C167 Siemens 16-Bit Microcontrollers

Additional Information

- 16 Bit Application Notes
- CAN Specific Application Notes
- 16-bit Errata Sheets
- C166 Family Foilset
- C16x 16 Bit Architecture & Instruction Set Manual
- C166 Starter Kits

The second instalment of this article will deal mainly with building the evaluation board, and in particular, fitting the 100-pin controller. In case the board does not work spot-on, practical advice and help is provided in the section 'faultfinding'.

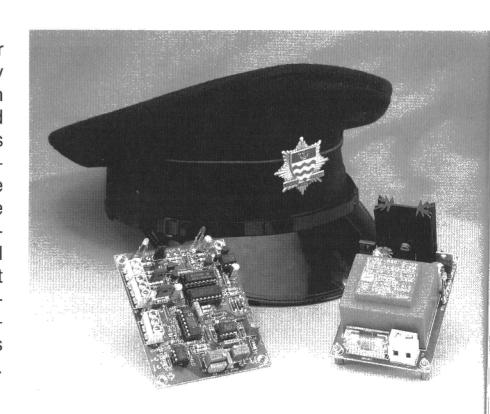
Part two will also discuss connecting-up the PC and your first steps in the world of 16-bit programming. Finally, there's useful information on where to obtain free or low-cost software for 80C166 program development.

(990028-1)

Titan 2000

Part 2: protection network

This second of four parts deals primarily with the protection network incorporated in the amplifier. This indispensable network safeguards the amplifier and the loudspeakers connected to it against all kinds of error that may arise. The network is an independent entity with its own power supply.



INTRODUCTION

As mentioned briefly in Part 1, extensive and thorough protection is a must in an amplifier of this nature. It may well be asked why this is so: is there such a likelihood of mishaps arising? Or is the amplifier so vulnerable? On the contrary: extended tests on the prototype have shown that the Titan 2000 is a very stable and reliable piece of equipment. In fact, unusual means had to be used to actuate the protection circuits during these tests, since not any standard test prompted the amplifier into an error situation.

The extensive protection is necessary because by far the largest number of mishaps occur owing to actions by the user, not because of any shortcomings in the amplifier. For example, the most robust and reliable amplifier can not always cope with extremely high overdrive or overload conditions.

SIX FUNCTIONS

The integrated protection network consists of six sub-circuits:

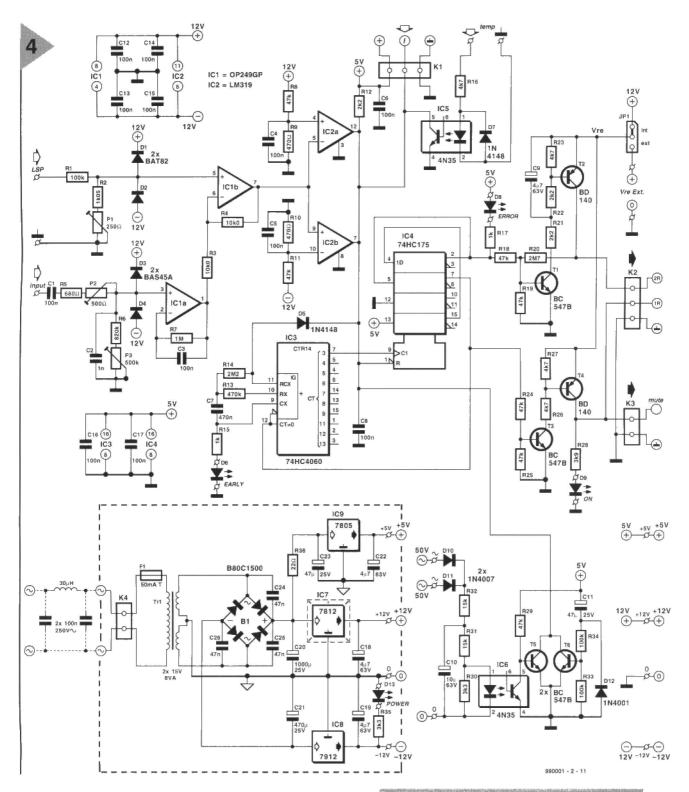
- power-on delay
- transformer voltage sensor
- temperature sensor
- current sensor
- direct-current sensor
- overdrive sensor

The power-on delay ensures that the relays in the amplifier are energized 50–100 milliseconds after the supply has been switched on to prevent switch-on clicks.

The transformer voltage sensor reacts to the cessation of the secondary voltage of the mains transformers to prevent switch-off clicks and crackles.

The temperature sensor responds to excessive heat sink temperatures, but it should be noted that this works only in

Correction. In last month's first part of this article, it was stated erroneously that the article consists of two parts, whereas in fact it will be described in four parts.



conjunction with the fan drive, which is reverted to later in this article.

The current sensor monitors the output current, while the direct-current and overdrive sensors form a combined circuit that monitors differences between the input and output signals, and reacts to excessive direct-current levels or distortion. This circuit is the most important and 'intelligent', but also the most complex of the six.

All sensors, when actuated, react in the same way: they cause the output relays and the mute relay at the input of the amplifier to be deenergized immediately. This action causes the input signal and the output load to be disconnected from the amplifier. After the fault causing the sensor action has been

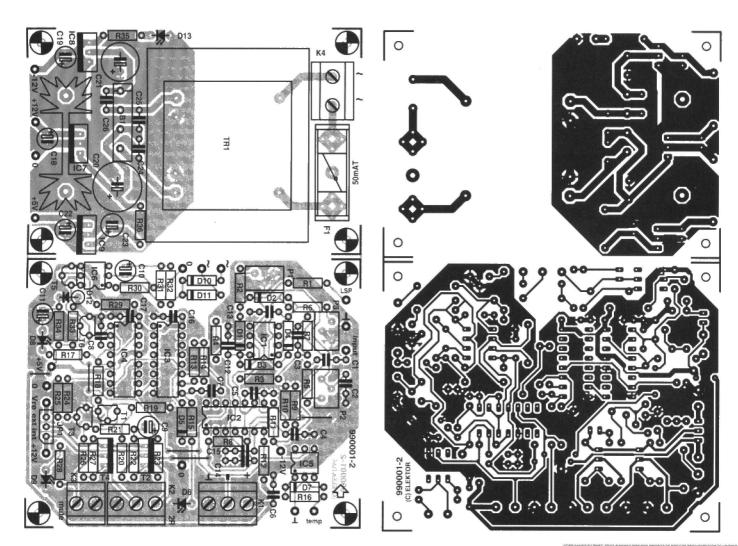
removed or remedied, the relevant protection circuit is disabled, whereupon the amplifier relays are reenergized after a short delay.

When the protection network is actuated, a red LED lights to indicate an error. When the fault has been removed or remedied, the red LED remains on, but a yellow LED flashes to indicate that the amplifier will be

Figure 4. The protection network consists of six sensor circuits each of which causes the input and output relays of the amplifier to be deenergized when a fault occurs.

reenabled shortly. The red LED then goes out, shortly followed by the yellow, whereupon a green LED lights to indicate that all is well.

COMMON SECTION AND POWER-ON DELAY The circuit of the integrated protection network, including the +5 V and ±12 V power supplies, is shown in Figure 4.



Parts lists Protection network Resistors: R_1 , R_{33} , R_{34} = R_2 = 1.05 k Ω $= 100 \text{ k}\Omega$ R_3 , $R_4 = 10.0 \text{ k}\Omega$ $R_5 = 680 \Omega$ $R_6 = 820 \text{ k}\Omega$ $= 1 M\Omega$ $\begin{array}{l} R_{\rm B}^{\prime},\,R_{11},\,R_{18},\,R_{19},\,R_{24},\,R_{25},\,R_{29} = 47~{\rm k}\Omega \\ R_{\rm B},\,R_{10} = 470~\Omega \end{array}$ $\begin{aligned} &\mathsf{R}_{12}, \mathsf{R}_{21}, \mathsf{R}_{22} = 2.2 \, k\Omega \\ &\mathsf{R}_{13} = 470 \, k\Omega \\ &\mathsf{R}_{14} = 2.2 \, M\Omega \end{aligned}$ R_{15} , $R_{17} = 1 \text{ k}\Omega$ R_{16} , R_{26} , R_{26} , $R_{27} = 4.7 \text{ k}\Omega$ $R_{20} = 2.7 \text{ M}\Omega$ $R_{28} = 3.9 \text{ k}\Omega$ R_{30} , $R_{35} = 3.3 \text{ k}\Omega$ R_{31} , $R_{32} = 15 \text{ k}\Omega$ $R_{36} = 22 \Omega$ $P_1 = 250 \Omega$, multiturn preset (upright) $P_2 = 500 \Omega$, multitun preset (upright) $P_3 = 500 \text{ k}\Omega$, multiturn preset (upright) Capacitors: C_1 , $C_3 = 0.1 \,\mu\text{F}$ $C_2 = 0.001 \,\mu\text{F}$ C_4 , C_5 , C_6 , C_8 , C_{12} - $C_{17} = 0.1 \mu F$. ceramic $C_7 = 0.47 \, \mu F$ C_{9} , C_{18} , C_{19} , $C_{22} = 4.7 \,\mu\text{F}$, 63 V, radial $C_{10} = 10 \,\mu\text{F}$, 63 V, radial 2×15 V secondary C_{11} , $C_{23} = 47 \,\mu\text{F}$, 25 V, radial $C_{20} = 1000 \,\mu\text{F}$, 25 V, radial Heat sink (for IC7) = e.g. Fischer SK104, 50 mm $C_{21} = 470 \,\mu\text{F}, 25 \,\text{V}, \, \text{radial}$ Mains interference filter

C_{24} - $C_{26} = 0.047 \,\mu\text{F, ceramic}$ Semiconductors: D_1 , $D_2 = BAT82$ D_3 , $D_4 = BAS45A$ D_5 , $D_7 = 1N4148$ D_6 , D_8 , D_9 , $D_{13} = 3$ mm high-efficiency LED (yellow, red, green, green respectively) D₁₀, D₁₁ = 1N4007 D₁₂ = 1N4001 T₁, T₃, T₆, T₆ = BC547B T₂, T₄ = BD140 Integrated circuits: IC₁ = OP249GP (Analog Devices) = LM319N $IC_3 = 74HC4060$ $IC_4 = 74HC175$ IC_5 , $IC_6 = 4N35$ $IC_7 = 7812$ $IC_8 = 7912$ $IC_9 = 7805$ Miscellaneous JP₁ = 2.54 mm pin strip and pin jumper K₁, K₂ = 3-way terminal block, pitch 5 mm $K_3 = 2$ -way terminal block, pitch 5 mm $K_4 = 2$ -way terminal block, pitch 7.5 mm $B_1 =$ bridge rectifier, rectangular, Type B80C1500 F₁ = fuse, 50 mAT and fuse holder Tr₁ = mains transformer, 15 VA, with

Figure 5. The printed-circuit board of the overall protection network.

The network is linked to the input and output of the amplifier via terminals 'input' and 'LSP' respectively (to terminals 'P-IN' and 'P-LS' on the amplifier board).

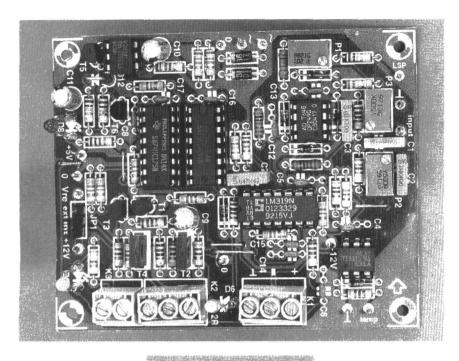
Terminals '50 V≈' are connected to the secondary windings of the mains transformers.

The three output relays and the mute relay in the amplifier are linked to the protection network via K2, and K3 respectively.

The current sensor is connected to the output of optoisolator IC2 in the amplifier ('I->' on the amplifier board) via K₁.

The terminals marked 'temp' are intended to be linked to the output of the fan control circuit.

As mentioned earlier, the action of each sensor results in the deenergizing of the output and mute relays in the amplifiers. This implies that the outputs of the the various sensor circuits are interlinked. This is effected by combining the open-collector outputs of these circuits into a wired OR gate with R₁₂ functioning as the common pullup resistance. The combined output signal serves to reset a number of



D-type bistables (flipflops), contained in IC₄, which are interconnected to form a

shift register. Note that D-type bistables are essential since these can be set and reset in a defined manner.

The outputs of IC₄ are used to drive two level converters, T_1 - T_2 and T_3 - T_4 respectively, which bridge the difference between the 5 V level of the logic ICs and the 12 V supply for the relays. Jumper JP₁ enables a different, external supply voltage ($V_{\rm RE}$) to be used if 12 V relays are not employed.

Transistors T_1 and T_2 drive Re_1 and Re_2 , which are the first to be energized (synchronously). On switch-off, capacitor C_9 ensures that T_2 remains on for some milliseconds longer during which period Re_3 and Re_4 are deenergized (see Part 1).

The power-on delay, which also operates after a fault situation, is more complex than usual. To start with, after the supply voltage us switched on, input CLR of IC_4 is held low (active) for a few seconds by the circuit around T_6 . When, after this period, CLR is made high by R_{12} —which happens only when there is no error situation (any longer)—the internal oscillator of IC_3 is enabled via D_5 . This results after a few seconds in a clock pulse appearing at the CLK input of IC_4 , whereupon Q_4 goes high. The period between the oscillator being enabled

Figure 6. Completed prototype of the protection network.

and the appearance of the first clock pulse is not defined since, owing to the presence

of T_6 , a power-on reset is purposely not provided. To ensure a minimum delay in the energizing of Re_1 and Re_2 in spite of this, a high level is clocked into Q_4 after IC_3 has been enabled. The precise moment at which this happens varies, therefore, only when the supply voltage is switched on for the first time.

A period of IC_3/Q_3 later, Q_1 of IC_4 goes high, whereupon Re_1 and Re_2 are energized. After another period, Q_2 of IC_4 becomes high, whereupon Re_3 and Re_4 are energized. At the same time, IC_3 is disabled since its reset is interlinked with Q_2 of IC_4 .

The red LED, D_8 , in parallel with Q_1 of IC_4 lights when the relays in the amplifier are not energized, either because the amplifier is (not yet) switched on, or owing to an error.

The yellow LED, D_6 , is linked to the output of the oscillator in IC_3 , causing it to flash until IC_4 is clocked.

The green LED, D_9 , is connected in parallel with Re_3 and Re_4 , so that it lights only when the amplifier is fully switched on.

TRANSFORMER VOLTAGE SENSOR

The 50 V \approx secondary voltages of the mains transformers in the amplifier are rectified by diodes D_{10} and D_{11} , and

smoothed by R_{30} - R_{31} - R_{32} - C_{10} . The values of these components ensure that the LED in optoisolator IC₆ lights sufficiently to hold the associated photo transistor on. This transistor pulls the base of T_5 to ground, causing T_5 to cut off. When the secondary voltages fail, T_5 is switched on immediately via R_{29} , whereupon the D-type bistables in IC₄ are reset.

Use is made of an optoisolator purposely to avoid any risk of earth loops between the supply return and the ground of the protection network, which is linked to the input ground of the amplifier.

TEMPERATURE SENSOR

The temperature sensor works in a manner similar to that of the transformer voltage sensor. The optoisolator in this circuit is IC_5 , which, in contrast to IC_6 , is normally cut off and comes on only when the heat sink becomes excessively hot.

The sensor reacts to the fan control circuit switching the fan speed to maximum (because the heat sink is getting too hot). A comparator in the fan control circuit then toggles, whereupon IC₅ is actuated via the 'temp' input and resets the D-type bistables in IC₄. This situation changes only after the heat sink has cooled down to an acceptable temperature (although the fans may still be rotating).

CURRENT SENSOR

To nullify high common-mode voltages and to prevent any risk of earth loops, the current sensor also uses an optoisolator, IC $_2$ (Figure 5). However, this is not located on the protection board, but directly at the output of the amplifier.

The values of the relevant components cause the sensor to be actuated when the output current is about 40 A. This may appear a very large current, but this is due entirely to the specified requirement that the amplifier must be capable of delivering 60 V into a load of $1.5~\Omega$ without the protection circuit being actuated. The current level may be lowered to some extent by increasing the value of R_{74} in the amplifier.

Output resistor R_{78} is in parallel with R_{12} by linking terminals Υ , '+5 V' and ground on the amplifier board to K_1 on the protection board via three lengths of insulated, stranded circuit wire twisted together. This arrange-



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SEE ALSO THE REPLYCARD ELSEWHERE IN THIS ISSU

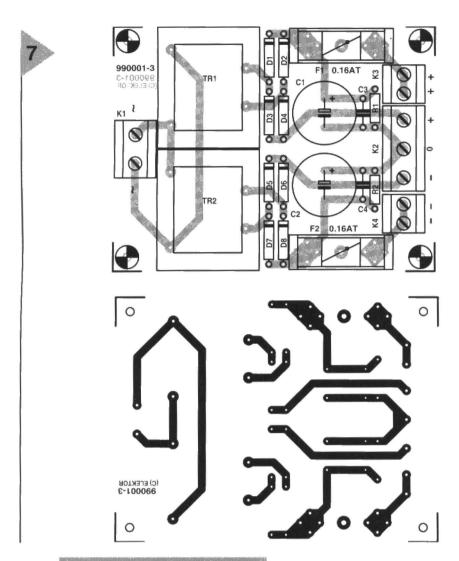


Figure 7. Printed-circuit board for the auxiliary power supply described in Part 1.

ment ensures a low impedance to any interference and a high reaction speed.

DIRECT-CURRENT AND OVERDRIVE SENSOR

The d.c. and overdrive sensor constantly compares the input and output signals of the amplifier and reacts when the difference between the two is too great. The comparison is effected with the aid of operational amplifier IC_1 which has a very low bias current and a very low offset. It is, of course, essential that during the comparison of the two signals by differential amplifier IC_{1b} the differences in phase and transit times do not lead to error detection. At the same time, the voltage amplification (×43) of the amplifier must be taken into account.

The amplification is compensated by potential divider R_1 - R_2 - P_1 at input LSP. The potentiometer is a multiturn type to ensure accurate adjustment.

The phase difference is compensated by the circuit based on IC_{1a}. The transit at high and low cut-off points is simulated by first-order networks that can also be adjusted very accu-

rately with multiturn potentiometers P₂ and P₃.

The inputs of IC_{1a} and IC_{1b} are protected by diodes. Since any leakage current of these diodes, combined with the high input impedance ($\approx 1 \, \mathrm{M}\Omega$) of IC_{1a} , might lead to an appreciable offset, and therefore to an unwanted error detection, the diodes, D_3 and D_4 , are special types with a leakage current of only 1 nA.

The output of differential amplifier IC_{1b} is monitored by a window comparator formed by IC_{2a} and IC_{2b} . The value of the components used in potential dividers R_8 - R_9 and R_{10} - R_{11} ensures that the protection circuit is actuated when the direct voltage reaches a level of $\pm 5\,\mathrm{V}$ or the distortion becomes 2.5 per cent. Such distortion will normally be the result of overdrive, but the circuit reacts equally well to oscillations or other spurious signals that cause too large a difference to be detected.

CONSTRUCTION AND SETTING UP

The integrated protection network is best built on the printed-circuit board shown in **Figure 5**. Populating this board should not present any undue

Parts lists Auxiliary power supply Resistors $R_1, R_2 = 1 M\Omega$ Capacitors: C_1 , $C_2 = 470 \,\mu\text{F}$, 100 V, radial C_3 , $C_4 = 0.1 \mu F$, 100 V, pitch 7.5 mm Semiconductors: $D_1 - D_8 = 1N4007$ Miscelleneous: K₁ = 2-way terminal block, pitch 7.5 K₂ = 3-way terminal block, pitch 7.5 mm K_3 , $K_4 = 2$ -way terminal block, pitch 5 mm Tr_1 , Tr_2 = mains transformer, 1.5 VA, with 12 V secondart F_1 , F_2 = fuse, 160 mAT, and fuse

difficulties, but it should be noted that diodes D_6 , D_8 , D_9 and D_{13} , are not located on the board, but are linked to it via flexible, stranded circuit wire. They are fitted to the front of the enclosure

Jumper JP $_1$ will normally be in position 'intern' unless relays with a coil voltage other than 12 V are used.

A prototype of the completed protection board is shown in **Figure 6**.

All input and output terminals of the board are clearly marked with the same symbols as shown in Figure 4. Most interconnections can be made in thin, stranded hook-up wire to DEF61-12, but the input and output links ('input' and 'LSP') must be screened audio cable.

Although the power supply for the protection network can be fitted on the same board, the relevant section may be cut off and fitted elsewhere. Of course, the supply lines must then be linked to the relevant terminals on the protection board via insulated, stranded hook-up wire.

The power supply is straightforward. From the secondary output of the specified mains transformer, Tr_1 , a symmetrical $\pm 12~V$ supply is obtained with the aid of regulators IC_7 and IC_8 . From the same secondary, a +5~V supply for the digital circuits is obtained with the aid of regulator IC_9 . Since the relays are fed by the +12~V line, regulator IC_7 must be fitted on a heat sink.

To ensure that the protection network is not actuated by interference on the mains supply, it is advisable to precede the power supply by a suitable noise filter. This may be made from a 30 μ H choke and two 0.1 μ F, 300 V \approx capacitors as shown in dashed lines in Figure 4.

The network is set up by maximizing the common-mode suppression with the aid of an oscilloscope or a multimeter with sufficient bandwidth. Measurements need to be made at 1 kHz, 20 kHz, and 20 Hz. The open-circuit amplifier is driven as far as possible by a suitable sine-wave generator or CD player with a test CD.

With a signal of 1 kHz, set P_1 for minimum sign al at the output of IC_{1b} , follow this with a signal of 20 kHz and adjusting P_2 , and finally, with a signal of 20 Hz, by adjusting P_3 . Since the settings influence one another to some extent, the potentiometers should be set a couple of times, perhaps also at some different audio frequencies.

POWER SUPPLY

The auxiliary power supply described in Part 1 is best constructed on the printed-circuit board shown in **Figure 7**. The mains voltage is linked to K_1 , the ± 70 V to K_2 and the +85 V and -85 V lines to K_3 and K_4 respectively. Since all currents are low level, the wiring may be made in thin, insulated, stranded hook-up wire. A completed prototype board is shown in **Figure 8**.

The main supply for the amplifier is a straightforward, unregulated type, providing an output of ± 70 V. Its circuit diagram is shown in **Figure 9**.

Since the specified requirements call for a 2 Ω load, the supply must be rated at 1000 VA, which necessitates two toroidal transformers. To prevent unforeseen equalizing currents, the dual secondaries are not linked in parallel, but are individually connected to a bridge rectifier. The outputs of the rectifiers can be connected in parallel without any problem. The rectifiers need to be mounted on a suitable heat sink such as a Type SK01.

It should be clear that the wiring of

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Figure 8. The auxiliary power supply is small enough to fit in most enclosures.

the power supply must allow for the large output currents of the amplifier. In the prototype, the electrolytic

capacitors are linked by 3 mm thick strips of aluminium. The remainder of the wiring should be in insulated, high-current wire to BS6231 with a conductor size of 50/0.25 mm (2.5 mm²) or better. The use of car-type connectors is recommended.

Note that the power supply as described is intended for use with a mono(phonic) amplifier that can deliver 800 W into 2Ω and should remain stable with loads of 1.5Ω . If

you are certain that you will always use 4Ω or 8Ω loads, the power supply requirements may be relaxed to some extent. A reasonable relaxation is the use of $2 \times 50 \text{ V}/300 \text{ VA}$ transformers and $10,000 \mu\text{F}/100 \text{ V}$ smoothing capacitors. The rating of the primary fuses may then be reduced to 1.5 AT.

MAINS-ON DELAY

The use of a mains-on delay is recommended when heavy loads are to be switched on, as in the case of the present amplifier. Such a delay circuit switches on the mains to the load gradually to ensure that the switch-on current remains within certain limits and to prevent the mains fuses from blowing.

The most recently published (in this magazine) mains-on delay is found in the July/August 1997 issue (p. 74), whose circuit diagram is reproduced in Figure 10. Its printed-circuit board is readily connected with the primary windings of the two mains transformers. The board is not available readymade, however, and its diagram is, therefore, reproduced in Figure 11.

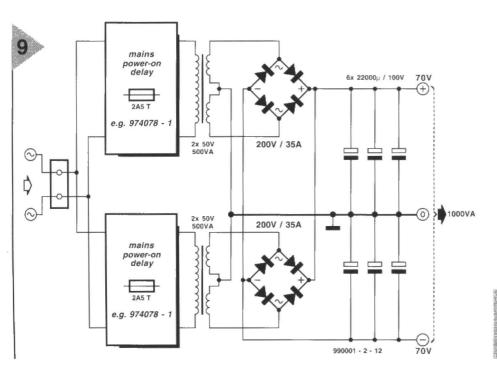
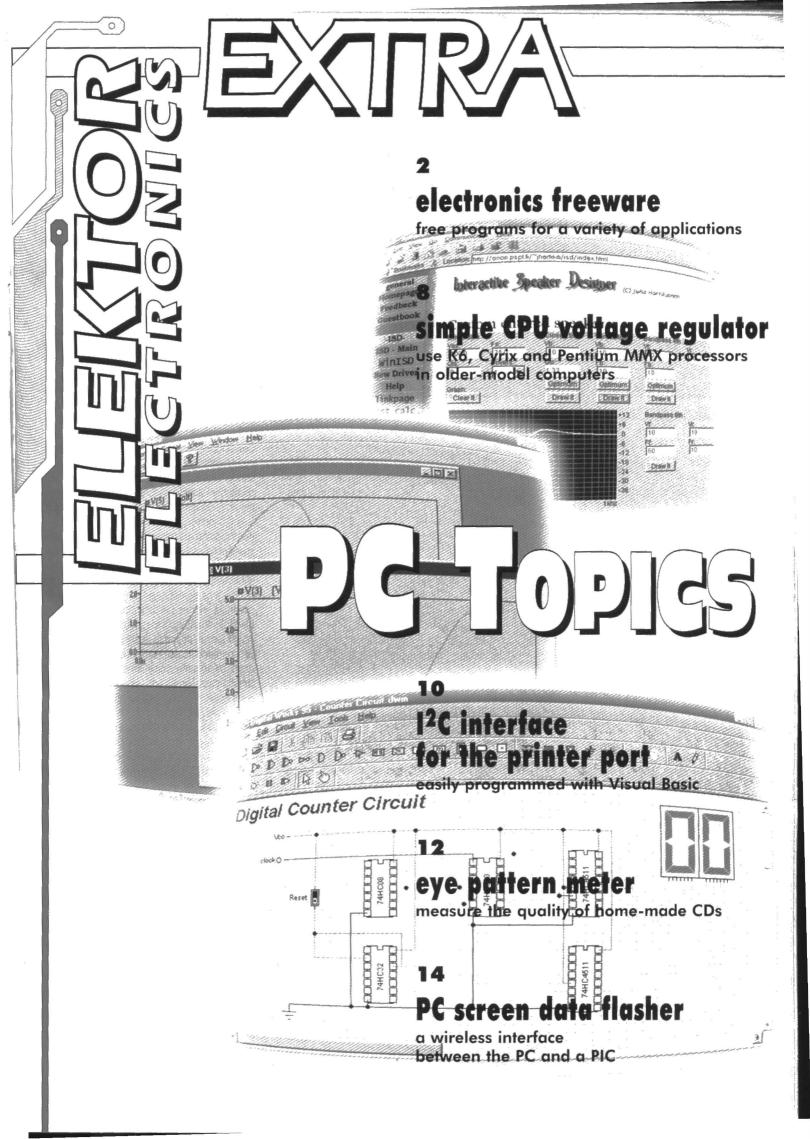


Figure 9. The main power supply for the amplifier is a heavy-duty entity in which the six capacitors are particularly impressive.

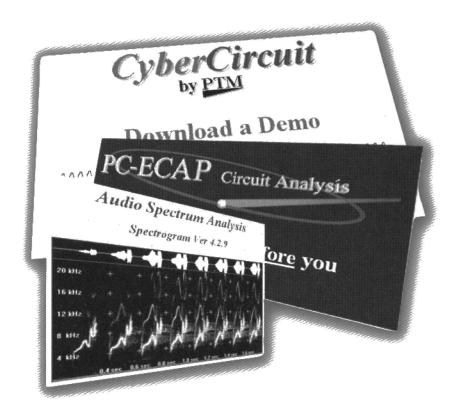


Computers are an expensive hobby. Not only is the hardware expensive, but you often have to reach deep into your pocket to pay for the software. Nevertheless, there are also firms and individual programmers who make their products available free of charge. Many such freeware programs can be found for electronics applications as well. We have ferreted out a few for you, which we present here with brief descriptions and their Internet download addresses.

By our Editorial Staff

electronics freeware

free programs for a variety of applications



Unfortunately, many people only consider the price of the hardware when they buy a computer, giving little thought to the software. However, software is in fact one of the major cost factors in a computer system. Especially for electronics applications, such as circuit simulation or designing circuit board layouts, the software packages are often expensive and can easily cost several hundred pounds. Still, software does not always have to be so expensive. In addition to shareware (programs that you can try

out for a while before having to pay for them), there is freeware, which is entirely free of charge. Why would a manufacturer or programmer give away software? There are various reasons. Sometimes it's purely a case of idealism, but there are usually more practical considerations. Some freeware programs are offered to whet the user's appetite for a more comprehensive version, which is of course not free. In other cases, manufacturers offer freeware versions of their programs to promote product awareness.

Distributing a freeware version of a simulation program among students, for example, has the advantage for the manufacturer that the students will later encourage their bosses to buy the commercial version.

In the remainder of this article, we describe a large number of freeware programs that we have found on the Internet. We classify as freeware only programs that are available free of charge, have no operating time limits (that is, they do not stop working after 30 days or so) and also have a usable set of functions. A demo version of a simulation program in which the print and save functions are disabled, for example, would thus not qualify as freeware.

The list is classified under a number of topics. A short description is provided for each program, including its size (if known) and the Internet address where it can be found. We have put the list together with as much care as possible, but it is possible that a certain Internet link no longer works or that the set of functions of a particular program is not exactly as described here. There is unfortunately not much that we can do about that, but you should keep in mind the happy fact that these programs cost you nothing except for telephone charges, so it's certainly worth the effort to try them out!

Audio

Interactive Speaker Designer

The Finn Juha Hartikainen maintains a number of Internet pages on the sub-

ject of building loudspeaker systems. A special feature is the program ISD (Interactive Speaker Designer), which visitors to his site can use free of charge to calculate the size of the enclosure for a given driver. The program works only via the Internet and cannot be downloaded.

http://orion.pspt.fi/~jhartika/isd/ index.html

Spec for Windows

This spectrum analyzer program runs under Windows 95/NT and 3.1 (with the Win32S extension). It includes a fairly complete FFT spectrum analyzer for processing signals applied to the inputs of the sound card. A freeware version with certain functions disabled is available, as well as a demo version and the professional version.

http://ourworld.compuserve.com/ homepages/jussi/sMain.htm

Size: 800 kB

Spectrogram Ver 4.2.7

This is a two-channel audio spectrum analyzer for Windows 95/98/NT. You can display the time/frequency spectrum or the spectral composition in real time on the monitor.

http://www.monumental.com/rshorne/ gram.html

Programmable logic

MPLAB V 4.0

This is a complete, integrated development package for designing, debugging and optimizing circuits using controllers from the popular Microchip PIC family.

http://www.microchip.com/10/Tools/ mTools/MPLAB/index.htm Size: 6.5 MB

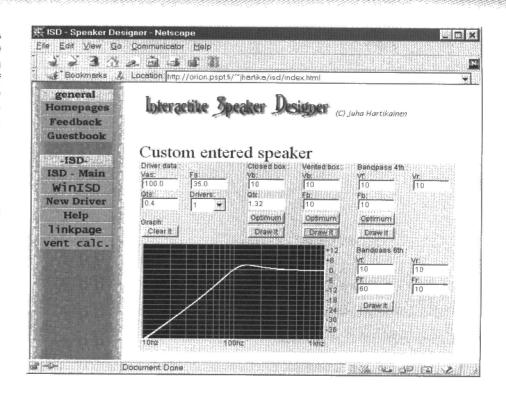
CUPL

This is a complete logic design environment, whose most important element is a C-like compiler. The CUPL output format can be used to program PLD or FPLA devices via a logic programmer. The package includes other functions for synthesis, compilation, partitioning and design rule checking. The CUPL starter kit is free.

http://www.logicaldevices.com/cupl/

ISP Synario Starter

This is a collection of Windows 95/NT software tools for generating designs based on Lattice ispLSI 1000, 1000E, 2000 and 2000V devices and the Lattice GAL family. This package includes (among others) a compiler, a simulator, a schematic drawing pro-



gram and a timing analyzer. http://www.latticesemi.com/ftp/ synario.html

Palasm V1.5

Palasm is a PLD compiler for programming PAL, MACH1 and MACH2 ICs. Equations can be entered using a text editor, and they can be compared and simulated.

http://www.vantis.com/software/ software.html

Circuit board layout

Circad

There are two free versions of this drawing and layout program available, one for DOS and the other for Windows 95/NT. The limitations of the programs are not specified.

http://www.holophase.com/dleval.htm

Eagle 3.5 Light Edition

This is a complete schematic drawing and circuit board layout program from the German firm Cadsoft. The limitations of the freeware version are: maximum board size 100 x 80 mm, maximum two layers. However, you can do quite a lot with that!

http://www.Cadsoft.de/freeware.htm Size: 3.2 MB (DOS version); 3.9 MB (Windows 95/NT version)

Easyedit

The Australian firm RCS provides freeware versions of the DOS programs Easyedit and Easyplot via the Internet, under the name IMBEZCAD.zip. Library updates are also regularly available at this site under the name RCSEZLIB. http://www.cia.com/au/rcsradio/index2.htm

Size: 1.1 MB

Express PCB

This is a circuit board layout program for Windows 95 that is suitable for double-sided boards with plated-through holes. There are no limitations. The idea behind the program is that you let the firm that provides the program manufacture the circuit boards that you design, but handy hobbyists can use the layout functions for their own designs.

http://www.expresspcb.com/ ExpressPCBHtm/Download.htm

Size: 4 MB

Quickroute 4.0

This is a completely functional demo version of this commercial simulation and circuit board layout program. The demo version is limited to a maximum of 40 pins.

http://www.quickroute.co.uk/ grs007.htm

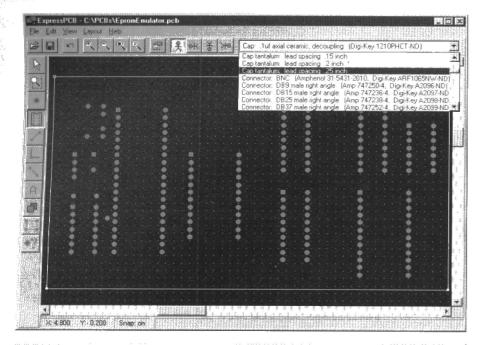
Size: 3 MB

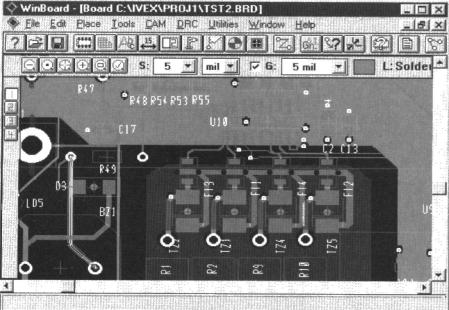
Windraft and Winboard

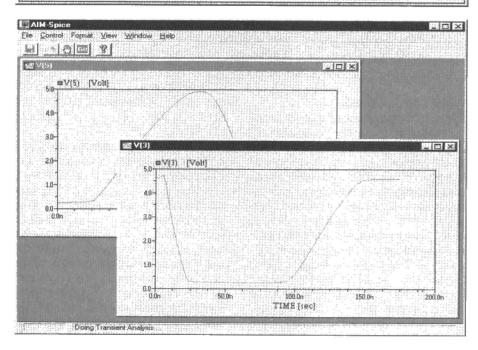
These Windows programs from Ivex are suitable for drawing schematic diagrams and doing circuit board layouts, respectively. The demo versions can only accommodate a limited number of pins (maximum 100).

http://www.ivex.com/

Size: 3.4 MB (Windraft) and 4 MB (Winboard)







Simulation

AIM Spice

This simulation program is based on Spice, as the name indicates. Evaluation versions are available for Windows 3.1 and Windows 95.

http://www.aimspice.com/ download.htm

Size: 1.3 MB (Windows 3.1 version); 1.9 MB (Windows 95 version)

Designlab Evaluation Version 8.0

This package consists of several modules from PSpice, the well-known simulation program from Microsim. PSpice is currently available under the OrCAD banner. The evaluation version is exceptionally well suited for the simulation of relatively small circuits. The number of components is limited to roughly 50, but that still allows quite substantial circuit diagrams to be simulated.

http://www.orcad.com/products/ pspice/eval_f.htm

Digital Simulator 1.1

This simulation program for digital circuits is free for educational institutions and students. A large number of digital components are available, and the size of the schematic diagram is unlimited. Signals can be traced in the circuit diagram using a logic analyzer function.

http://www.mit.edu/people/ara/ds.html Size: 1.7 MB (Windows 3.1 version); 1.8 MB (Windows 95 version)

Digital Works

This freeware program is a simulator for digital circuits. All basic functions (AND, OR, flip-flop etc.) are present, and it is possible to create macros to simulate more complex ICs. There are separate versions for Windows 3.1 and Windows 95.

http://www.scm.tes.ac.uk/users/ d.j.barker/digital/digital.htm Size: 1.5 MB

ICAP/4

An evaluation version of this well-known simulation program is available for Windows 95. Only a demo version is available for Windows 3.1. You will also find demo versions of the Intusoft programs Test Designer, Magnetic Designer, FilterMaster and SpiceMod at this web site.

http://www.intusoft.com/demos.htm Size: 6 MB

Micro-Cap V Student Version

This is a mixed-mode simulation program with a modern interface and lots of features. The working demo/student

version is limited only in the number of nodes that can be simulated. http://www.spectrum-soft.com/

demo.html Size: 1.75 MB

PC-ECAP

This is an analysis program for calculating and plotting the amplification, phase, delay, impedance and VSWR characteristics of a circuit. It is even possible to calculate the transient response, with a choice of eight waveforms.

http://www.ourworld.compuserve.com/ homepages/circuitsys/PCECAP.HTM

SIMetrix Intro

This simulation program for analogue circuits runs under Windows 95/NT and offers a schematic drawing module, advanced waveform analysis functions and a scripting language. The only limitation of the intro version is in the simulation time.

http://www.newburytech.co.uk/Pages/download.html

Size: 2.7 MB

Smash 4 Evaluation Version

The French firm Dolphin Integration provides an extensive simulation program for Windows 95/NT, called Smash. The only limitation of the evaluation version is in the number of nodes that can be simulated (25 analogue nodes and 50 digital nodes). Other than this it is fully functional. http://www.dolphin.fr/

Miscellaneous

CyberCircuit

This is a Windows program that simplifies finding circuit diagrams for specific applications (and other electronics information) in an associated library. The free demo version contains a library with only 100 entries, while the regular version of CyberCircuit contains 650 entries and the Plus version has 1100. There are no other limitations on the demo version.

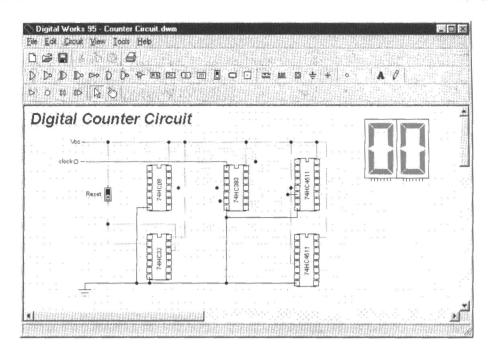
http://www.members.aol.com/ cybercir/demo.htm

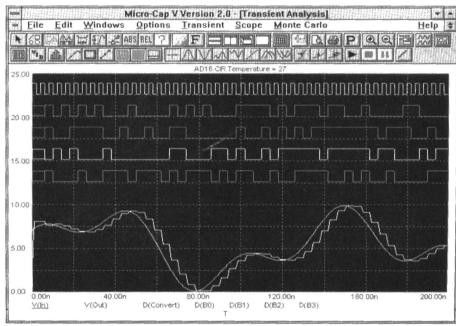
Size: 600 kB

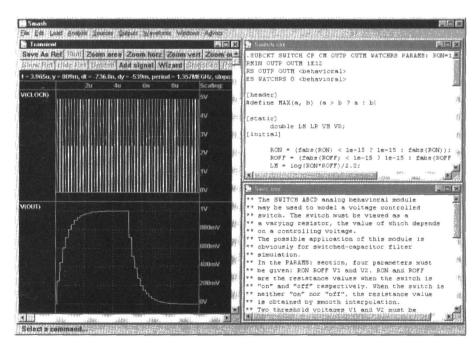
DADISP Student Edition

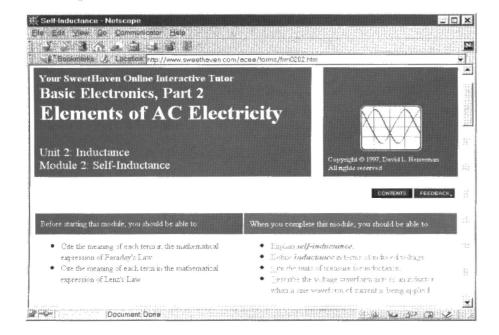
This data analysis program is easy to learn and to use. It has numerous functions for processing data and presenting it in a variety of forms. DADiSP runs under Windows, and the student version can accept a maximum of 8192 measurements.

http://www.dadisp.com/studntdl.htm









Elements of AC Electricity

This not exactly a program, but it is still worth mentioning. This is a free English-language course in electricity and electronics that you can follow via the Internet. The current lesson is basic electronics, part 2. The firm that came up with the idea, Sweethaven Publishing Services, wants to show how educational programs can be presented on the Internet.

http://www.sweethaven.com/acee/

Equation Grapher

This is a Windows program for plotting all sorts of equations and graphics. http://www.mfsoft.com/equationgrapher/

Flimmer

This is a handy little Windows utility for measuring the video display frequency. It is a German-language program, but it is so clearly laid out that it can be easily used without a complete mastery of German.

http://www.systron.ch/portrait.htm

Size: 27 kB

KyPlot

This is a professional-looking Windows program for plotting graphics and characteristic curves. The beta version is free in 16-bit and 32-bit versions. http://www.qualest.co.jp/Download/KyPlot/kyplot e.htm

Ntoct

This handy monitor testing program from Nokia provides many functions that can be used to investigate the quality of your monitor and adjust it for the best possible display. This program has been around for several years, but it is still one of the best of its type.

http://www.nokia.com/products/ monitors/monitor_test.html

Size: 1.2 MB

Oscilloscope for Windows

This is a small, handy program that displays a dual-channel oscilloscope on the monitor, with all the important controls. It displays the signals present at the inputs of the sound card.

http://www.polly.phys.msu.su/~zeld/ oscill.html

Size: 42 kB (Windows 3.1 version); 90 kB (Windows 95 version)

Freeware for radio amateurs

A vast potential of free software is available to licensed radio amateurs, short-wave listeners (SWLs) and other RF design enthusiasts. Remarkably, most freeware programs are a bit rusty and consequently run under DOS and/or Windows 3.11 only. Not surprising, really, because many radio amateurs will insist on using an older computer — in these circles, the 386 is still going strong and nothing to be ashamed of...

Because the radio hobby is marked by countless sub-specialisms, it is almost impossible to mention all available freeware for each 'sub-interest'. A couple of popular modes and ham activities, however, are difficult to avoid: packet radio, SSTV, DXing, contest logging, ATV, antenna design, QTH locator/distance calculations. Apart from the widely used WinPack, the packet radio fraternity is served by lots of other less ominous programs. A neat division based on PC operating system may be found at

www.telebyte.nl/~jeepee/softham.htm

Here you find links to WinPack (V. 6.4 for Windows), SP 9.75 (for DOS, an excellent replacement for the almost vintage BayCom), TNT (for Linux) and FlexPacket (for OS/2). The creators of packet radio, the Tucson Amateur Packet Radio Club (TAPR) may be found at www.fapr.org/tapr/html/software.html

It has to be said that most freeware for radio amateurs may be found on **ftp servers**. In case these are new to you, we recommend getting started with Fast FTP Search at

http://ftpsearch.lycos.com

and put this url in your Favourites folder. This search engine will faith-

fully locate servers holding evergreens like Mininec (antenna design), BayCom (packet radio), RFTools (RF circuit design), QTH, Wefax, Coil (inductor design), Coilbuilder (ditto) Wvfax (weather satellite reception) and WinOrbit (satellite tracking), to mention but a few. In most cases, it is a good idea to type '.zip' behind the filename, for example, 'rffools.zip'. This will prevent the search engine from spewing out too many 'hits'. A couple of suggestions for ftp servers containing tons of ham software:

ttp://ttp.nhl.nl/hamradio

ftp://ftp.uscd.edu/hamradio

ttp://oak.oakland.edu/pub/hamradio/

ftp://ftp.grz.com/pub/

ftp:ftp.fh-coburg.de/pub/freeware/hamradio

A 'must' with every visit to an tip server is to read the index file which should be available at any level in the directory structure. If you don't, figuring out what a program does is pure guesswork if you haven't gone through the trouble of actually loading and using it.

Finally, there are many radio amateur societies, organisations, special-interest groups and, of course, individual hams with their own website. These sites are often great resources for freeware, or links to freeware. For example, take a look at what Geoff Brown GJ4iCD does at

http://user.supernet.uk/equinox

Happily surfing the net we also came across a splendid collection of ATV testcharts, a perfect DTMF generator using the soundcard and a QTH distance calculator, all at

http://www.arcadeshop.demon.co.uk/atv

Psimath

Everyone who works with electronics occasionally needs a pocket calculator with scientific functions - even when using the computer. This free program has a graphic display in addition to the usual functions, and even allows the user to program his or her own functions.

http://www.psido.exp.univie.ac.at/

psimath/ Size: 2 MB

SmartDraw

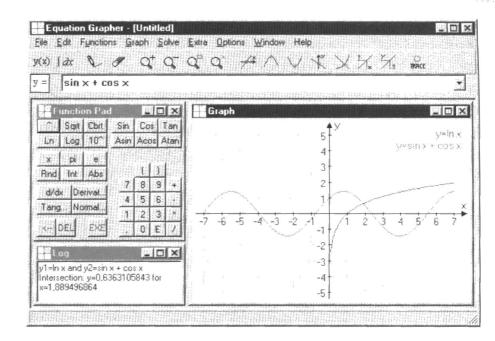
This is an easy-to-use drawing program that is suitable for generating flow charts, organization charts, technical illustrations, diagrams and so on. There are separate versions for Windows 3.1 and Windows 95/NT.

http://www.smartdraw.com/

freecopy.htm Size: 1.8 MB

Wiring Diagram 2000

This is a handy application for drawing



wiring diagrams. It takes up only 256 kB on the hard disk and works under Windows 3.1 and above.

http://www.geocities.com/SiliconValley/ Park/5228/apps.htm Size: 49 kB (990011-1)

WHEN ELECTRONICS WAS YOUNG (3)

It is remarkable how many discoveries came about by accident (although it should be borne in mind that these 'accidents' were normally preceded by much hard work on allied research). One of these happened to the Danish physicist, Hans Christian Oersted (1777-1851). He was applying a potential across a metal wire to measure the current, when he noticed to his amazement that a compass that happened to be near the wire deflected when the voltage was switched on.



Hans C. Oerstedt (1777...1851).

Since he was aware, of course, of the interaction between two magnetic poles (laid down in the 1785 Law of Coulomb), he concluded that an unknown magnetic force was active in his experiments. An important conclusion, because until then nobody had connected electricity and magnetism. Until the middle of this century, the electromagnetic unit of magnetic fieldstrength was the oersted (2π oersted is the field at the centre of a circular coil 2 cm in diameter carrying a current of 1 ampere). It was replaced by the SI unit Am-1 $(=4\pi \times 10^{-3} Oe)$.

Oersted's discovery was the spur to further research by other scientists. Around 1820, the French physicist Dominique Francois Jean-Arago (1786-1853) discovered that an iron rod can be made magnetic by winding a current-carrying (insulated) conductor around it. The magnetism disappeared when the current was switched off. Today, Arago is better known by the experiments he conducted before the discovery of electromagnetic induction by Michael Faraday in which a rotating copper disk was made to cause rotation of a pivoted magnet (Arago's rotation).

Another scientist fascinated by electromagnetism was the French physicist and mathematician André Marie Ampère (1775-1836),

who discovered that two wires carrying direct currents flowing in the same direction attract one another and repel each other when the direction of one current is reversed. The force with which this happens is directly proportional to the level of current and inversely proportional to the distance between the wires. From these findings, he formulated the law named after him: nHdl=i (where H is the field around the conductor, I is the length of the conductor, and i is the current



André Marie Ampère

through the conductor) He also worked out the principle of a moving-coil ammeter, which depends for its action upon the force on a current-carrying coil in the field of a permanent magnet.

In the early part of the 19th century there were not yet standardized units for current, voltage and resistance. Although the British chemist Sir Humphrey Davy (1778-1829) had already dis-

covered that the electrical resistance of metals increases when the temperature of the metal is raised, it was not until some years later that the German physicist Georg Simon Ohm(1787-1854) found that the current through a conducting wire is directly proportional to the potential across the wire and inversely proportional to the resistance of the wire. This was formulated in the well-known Law of Ohm: I=E/R.



Georg S. Ohm (1787.,.1854).

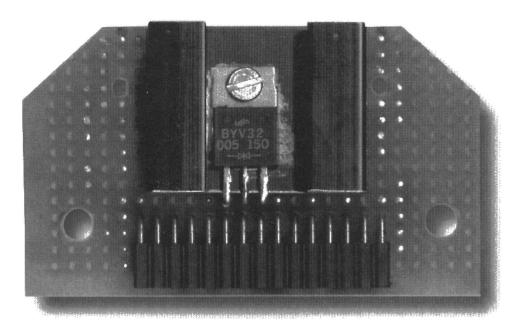
[995024]

With the introduction of the AMD K6, Cyrix 6x86 and Pentium MMX processors, a second supply voltage is required on the motherboard in addition to the primary voltage of 3.3 to 3.5 V. This additional voltage can be generated using a special voltage regulator, but there is an easier approach. The circuits presented here solve the problem in an especially simple and inexpensive manner.

Design by K. Viernickel

simple CPU voltage regulator

use K6, Cyrix and Pentium MMX processors in older-model computers



Before the time of the Pentium MMX processor, all CPUs used a single supply voltage (3.3 to 3.5 V). However, designers then decided to use a lower supply voltage (2.2 to 2.7 V) for the core of the processor, in order to reduce the amount of heat generated. In the transition period between these two types of CPUs, various motherboard manufacturers provided special expansion connectors on the motherboard to

allow an extra voltage regulator to be fitted for CPUs that require two supply voltages. However, these special voltage regulator modules are rather difficult to obtain, especially since modern motherboards have a double supply voltage as a standard feature.

If you want to upgrade a moderately old computer by installing a new CPU, then it's handy to be able to provide your own solution for the second supply voltage.

It must be said at the outset that the circuit presented here is relatively simple, which naturally means that it has certain limitations. One of these is that the output voltage level may differ slightly from the desired value. It is thus important that you check what the supply voltage tolerance is for the processor used, and use a DVM to measure the actual output voltage of the regulator after switching on the computer, to verify that it is within the allowed range. You should also check the voltage whenever an energy-saving program, such as Waterfall, is active. The reduced current consumption in the energy-saving mode can cause the output voltage to increase slightly. You need not be unduly concerned about small variations in the voltage level, but it is important to be sure that everything is proper.

Two options, two circuits

Figure 1 shows the approach used to reduce a 3.5 V supply voltage to 2.8 V. This approach is needed when a Pentium processor with MMX technology is used, among others. The dual diode used here (Philips BYV32/100) has a forward voltage drop that is slightly more than 0.7 V across the PN junction, as can be seen from the characteristic curve in Figure 2. If the CPU supply voltage on the motherboard is set to 3.5 V,

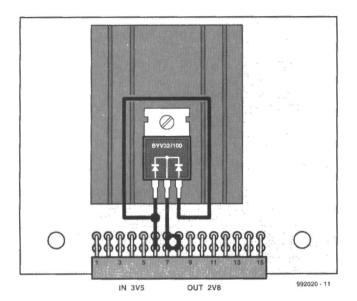


Figure 1. This circuit can be used to generate the additional supply voltage for a Pentium MMX processor.

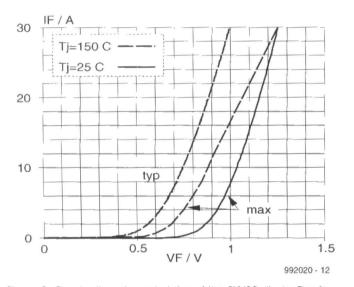


Figure 2. Conduction characteristics of the BYV32 diode. The forward voltage is shown on the horizontal axis and the forward current on the vertical axis.

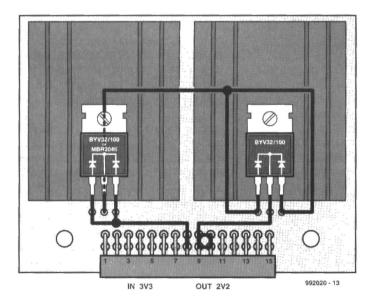


Figure 3. This circuit can be used If you decide to use an AMD K6-2.

then the output voltage will indeed be reduced to the desired level of 2.8 V. The diodes can together handle up to 20 A, which is more than enough for the job at hand.

A pair of diodes can be used in a similar manner to reduce the supply voltage from 3.3 V to 2.2 V, as shown in Figure 3. This approach can be used with an AMD K6-2 processor. In this case the basic idea is that the 3.3 V voltage is dropped to roughly 2.2 V by means of two diode voltage drops in series. Here we use either two BYV32 devices or one BYV32 plus one MBR1035/1045. The latter is a Schottky diode whose maximum forward voltage drop is 0.57 V at 10 A. The voltage drop is even less at lower current levels. The series connection of a BYV32 pair and am MBR1045 provides a voltage drop of 1.1 to 1.2 V, which is exactly what is needed in this case.

Connecting the two PN junctions of the BYV32 in parallel causes the relatively high current to be split between the two diodes, which results in a smaller voltage drop per diode.

The two circuits work with two different input voltages (3.3 and 3.5 V). The voltage level can usually be selected by means of a jumper on the motherboard. In practice, it does not matter all that much to the processor whether it works with 3.3 V or 3.5 V, but the level of the second supply voltage is clearly more critical.

Construction

It's easy to build the circuit and connect it to the motherboard. Mount the diode(s) together with a heat sink on a piece of prototyping board, and add a two-row, 30-pin right-angle connector. The wiring diagrams of **Figures 1** and 3 indicate the necessary connections. The photo in **Figure 4** shows the prototype build by the author. Once you have fitted the regulator board to the motherboard connector and set the jumpers correctly, your PC is ready for a second (and faster) life.

(992020-1)

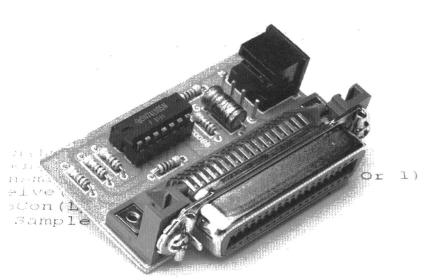
Table 1. Processor operating voltages.				
type	Core voltage	I/O voltage		
Pentium (P54C)	3.3 - 3.5 V	3.3 - 3.5 V		
Pentium MMX (P55C)	2.8 V	3.3 - 3.5 V		
AMD K5 PR75 - PR300	3.3 - 3.5 V	3.3 - 3.5 V		
AMD K6 PR166 - PR200	2.9 V	3.3 ∨		
AMD K6 PR233	3.2 V	3.3 V		
AMD K6 PR266 - PR300	2.2 V	3.3 V		
AMD K6-2 PR266 - PR400	2.2 V	3.3 ∨		
Cyrix 6x86 P120+ - P200+	3.3 - 3.5 V	3.3 - 3.5 V		
Cyrix 6x86MX PR166 - PR266	2.9 V	3.3 V		

Many hobbyists use their PCs to control circuits via an I²C interface. In this article, we show how the necessary programming can be made considerably easier with the help of a simple interface card and a special Visual Basic DLL. Now you can control all your I²C hardware via Visual Basic under Windows.

Design by R. Van Lier

I²C interface for the printer port

easily programmed with Visual Basic



78582 (Begin_Address As Integer, As

I²C, the Inter-IC bus, was developed by Philips to allow ICs to communicate with each other. Many modern pieces of equipment, such as tuners, television sets and video recorders utilize this interface. Nowadays, the major microcontroller families support this interface, and driving the I²C bus is furthermore not all that difficult.

If the I²C bus is used to control equipment via the PC, then things are quite a bit more complicated. A special hardware interface card that allows external equipment to be controlled has been described in a past issue of *Elektor Electronics*. The associated software was limited to simple device drivers at the DOS level. Presently, with practically every PC running with Windows, this approach is a bit outdated.

There's another way

Many programmers these days utilize Visual Basic, which is a graphical development environment for programming in BASIC under Windows. The most significant limitation of Visual Basic is the fact that memory locations cannot be directly addressed. Filling in the contents of hardware registers in special chips is thus out of the question. Fortunately, there is a way to work around this problem, based on using a special DLL.

The DLLs presented here contain a number of special functions, including:

- generating the start condition,
- generating a stop condition,
- sending a byte,
- receiving a byte.

There are two types of DLL available. The first is IIC.DLL, a 16-bit version that is suitable for use with Visual Basic 3 (Windows 3.1x), and the second is IIC 32.dll, a 32-bit version that is suitable for use with Visual Basic 4 and above (Windows 95 and later). These DLLs must be copied to the Windows/System folder or Windows/System32 folder, respectively. Users of Windows NT should in principle also be able to use the 32-bit DLL, but they encounter a problem in that Windows NT does not allow the user to directly write to hardware addresses. In this case a solution is available in the form of the program TotallO, which is distributed via the Internet. Interested parties can find it at http://www.ise.ufl.edu/esi4161/ files/direct io/

Once this driver has been installed, it is no problem to access the I/O hardware directly from the software.

A complete concept

Support for the PCF8591 IC is already built into the DLLs. This IC contains both an A/D and a D/A converter and is used in many projects. The example program IIC.BAS (which is located on the diskette along with the drivers) shows how both the PCF8591 (A/D and D/A) and the PCF8582 (EEPROM) can be used with the interface card of this project, supported by Visual Basic. Based on these examples, you can see that using the I²C interface has become very easy indeed. The only limitation with this approach is that

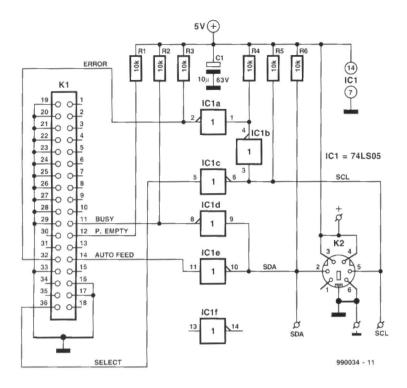


Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the I²C interface, which can be connected to the PC Centronics port.

there can be only one master in the system, namely the PC.

The hardware

The DLL is based on a special I²C interface that is connected to the printer port. The circuit diagram is shown in Figure 1. The interface is based on the standard PC Centronics port, and connects five buffers of a 74LS05 to the port. It utilizes the printer port connections Error, Busy (inputs), Paper Empty and Auto Feed (outputs). These four connections are used to generate

the two I²C bus control signals SCL and SDA. Both of these signals are provided via combined input/output connections, since they are both bi-directional. The two control signals and the supply voltage are routed to connector K2. The target hardware can easily be connected to the interface via a cable and a mini-DIN plug.

Regular Elektor Electronics readers will undoubtedly recognize the circuit, since it was already presented in the Summer Circuits issue in 1993. Only marginal changes have been made to the original circuit design.

The pull-up resistors used here are required, since the buffer and the I²C driver are both open-collector devices. If R5 and R6 are the only pullup resistors on the I2C side, it is better to use a value of 3.3 k Ω .

The copper track layout and component overlay of the circuit board are shown in Figure 2. This board is not available through our Reader Services, so you will have to make it yourself. Fortunately, this is not difficult since the board is quite simple.

(990034-1)

DLL functions

InitPCF8591 ReadPCF8591 WritePCF8591 StartCon

: initialise PCF8591 : read byte from ADC ReadbufPCF8591: read n bytes from ADC : write n bytes to DAC : generate start condi-

tion

RepStartCon

: generate repeated start condition

Transmit : transmit a byte Receive : read a byte TestFree : test if bus free TestConnected : check if interface and

supply present

Error reports

0 Error 0000 : No errors

Error 0001 : IIC bus not free Error 0002 : No acknowledge

received

3 Error 0003 : Could not generate a

stop condition

Error 0004 : IIC interface has no power

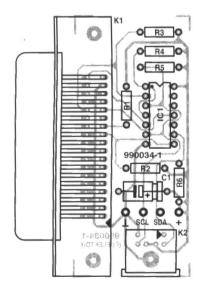
supply

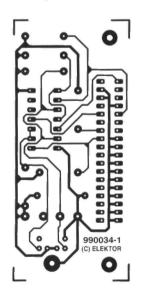
Error 0005 : IIC interface not connect-

ed

6 Error 0006 : Undefined error occurred

Figure 2. The copper track layout and component overlay for the interface board.





COMPONENTS LIST Resistors: $R1-R3 = 10k\Omega$ Capacitor: $C1 = 10\mu F 63V$ Semiconductor: IC1 = 74LS05Miscellaneous: K1 = Centronics socket (female), rightangle PCB mounting K2 = 6-pin mini-DIN socket (female), right-angle PCB mounting PC1-PC4 = 4 wire-wrap pins Control software on 3.5-inch diskette (DLLs and example program), order code 996004-1.

The eye pattern diagram is a proven means of judging the quality of a digital transmission channel or storage medium. It can normally be acquired from every type of CD-ROM player/recorder and can be displayed using remarkably simple equipment.

Design by W. Foede

eye pattern meter

measure the quality of home-made CDs

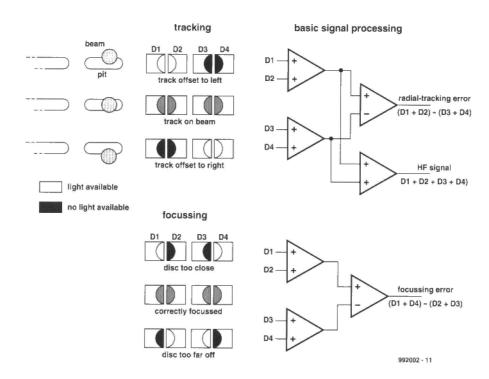


Figure 1. The four photodiodes D1 through D4 provide both the data signal HF and information that is used for adjusting the focussing and tracking.

Nothing is perfect, not even digital data transmission. No matter whether we are dealing with audio data or 'normal' computer data, the error gremlin is always present. Possible sources of errors in digital data transfers can be found both in the system components (such as a CD-ROM player/recorder) and the storage media (such as the CD). Some types of system-related errors, in particular those with electronic sources such as aliasing, nonlinearity and noise, can be minimized by suitable circuit design, and other types can be dealt with by error-protection

measures. In the latter case, errors are detected using parity checking or cyclic redundancy checking (CRC) and corrected by means of encoding schemes (such as cross-interleaved Reed-Solomon coding). And if this all fails, the corrupted signal can be restored by interpolation.

Other types of system-level errors are purely mechanical in nature. The causes of the most frequent, commonly-occurring errors with the CD medium are well known: soil and scratches on the surface of the CD itself. These obvious errors usually affect a large number of

bits and are referred to as 'bundle errors'. Of course, single-bit errors can also occur, for example due to an asymmetric pit or a material defect. Errors also occur due to faulty tracking and incorrect focussing of the laser beam. It is by no means a simple task to keep the laser beam within micrometer tolerances in spite of often demanding environmental conditions. To ensure a good-quality playback signal, the laser beam should follow the centre line of the track within ±0.1 micrometre. This requires a sophisticated control system and a mecha-

nism that responds quickly and accurately, even after years of service.

There are many possible ways to build a laser read or write head assembly, but all of them have one thing in common. This is the fact that the signal received by the photodetector (that is, the laser detector assembly with its four photodiodes) delivers both the data signal and important information that is used to control the laser head. This information is produced by interpreting the signals from the four photodiodes, as illustrated in **Figure 1**.

The FE signal is used by the focussing actuator to correct for focussing errors, the radial error signals RE1 and RE2 are employed by the tracking control subassembly, and the sum of the signals from all four diodes produces the data signal, designated HF. The latter signal is passed through an automatic gain control stage and converted to a balanced signal before being output from the servo electronics assembly.

There is no need to be concerned about the data signal being affected by the relatively low-frequency control signals. The bandwidth of the data signal is limited to the range of 20 kHz to 1.5 MHz by the eight-to-fourteen modulation scheme (EFM), so it is completely separated from the control signals.

The eye-pattern diagram

One way to judge the quality of a digital data transfer is to observe its eyepattern diagram. This is produced (in the case of a CD-ROM player) by connecting the HF signal to the Y input of an oscilloscope while connecting the clock signal recovered from the HF data stream to the X input. This causes an eye-shaped pattern to be displayed. When a large number of such patterns are displayed superimposed, the result is an eve-pattern diagram as illustrated in Figure 2. In the ideal case, all of the eye patterns lie exactly on top of each other, but in practice distortions occurs due to radial and focussing errors. Several factors relating to the quality of the digital data channel and the storage medium can be read from the eye pattern diagram. The inner width of the eye is equal to the minimum separation between successive pulse edges of the binary data stream. The difference in the widths of the eye patterns indicates the amount of litter. and the amount of variation in the pulse amplitude can be read from the difference in the heights of the eye patterns. The inner height of the eye-pattern diagram indicates the noise margin of the digital signal.

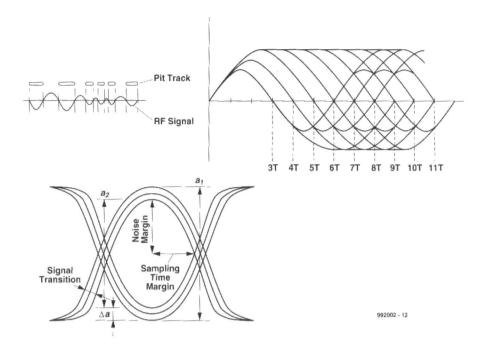


Figure 2. The eye-pattern diagram shows the overall 'health' of the data signal.

Applications

No matter how highly integrated a given CD-ROM player/recorder may be, it is always possible to access the HF and data clock signals somewhere inside the unit. The most interesting application for these signals is to use them to generate eye-pattern diagrams on an oscilloscope, as just described. However, it is possible to do something useful with the HF signal alone (together with an earth reference). The HF signal - once the DC component has been removed - provides in fact an exact indication of the relationship between pit and non-pit signal levels, the 'pit-to-land ratio'.

You can connect an ordinary moving-coil meter to the HF signal as shown in **Figure 3**, with a capacitor to block the DC voltage and a variable series

resistance (R1 plus P1). The Schottky diode D1 acts as a rectifier. The HF signal can easily tolerate this load.

Adjust the resistance so that the meter indication is about 90% of full scale with an arbitrarily selected, prerecorded CD. The meter can be used to optimally adjust a laser head (for a maximum meter indication). This is especially worthwhile for three-beam assemblies, since their mechanisms are not all that robust. However, it can also be used for comparative testing of various makes of CD-R drives (which was the author's original intention). In this way you can answer questions such as 'is an inexpensive no-name CD-R drive just as good as an expensive topbrand product?' and 'can I find the best brand of CD-R disk to use with a given CD-R drive?'

(992002)

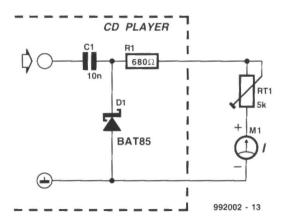


Figure 3. A very simple circuit can be used to show the quality of the data transfer.

If a PIC is used for example in a timer application, such as a programmable clock timer, the majority of the circuit is taken up by the user interface with its switches, pushbuttons and display hardware. This expense can be avoided if the settings are entered via a PC, but operating the device is then made even more inconvenient by the required connecting cable. In this article, the author describes a simple interface that requires almost no additional hardware and allows a PIC application to be configured from the PC without a connecting cable.

Dosign by H. Bärnthaler

PC screen data flasher

a wireless interface between the PC and a PIC



As an example, let's suppose that you want to build a convenient timer using a microcontroller. All that you need for the timer function is a counter that engages or releases a relay at certain times. This function can be realized with a few lines of software.

However, you will need significantly more software and hardware (push-buttons and a display) to be able to configure the timer. You must be able to set the current time and define the various switching times, you have to specify which relay is to be controlled, and of course you will have a choice of several options. For the benefit of the user, you compose four pages of verbose text in order to explain how to

set up the timer using its three pushbuttons and three-character display.

A better solution

Instead of all this, you can write an easy-to-use C program on your PC, with attractive screen windows and a help menu, and use this to enter the necessary data for the timer. Then you hold a simple probe, resembling a ball-point pen and containing a phototransistor sensor, against a certain portion of the monitor screen where a blinking point of light appears. This transfers the required 20 bytes of configuration data to the microcontroller. The advantages of this approach are

obvious. Only one port lead is used for the entire key entry and configuration management functions of the timer. The display and pushbuttons are made fully redundant, since all data are entered at the PC and graphically edited. No cable need be connected to the PC, and the PC and the PIC system are fully electrically isolated. Finally, a small amount of simple code in the PIC is sufficient for handling the data, so that more memory is available for the actual application.

The configuration data are managed in a convenient and easily-understood manner using the PC, and the complete PC keyboard is effectively made available to the PIC. This procedure

can be used with even the most antique PC, since practically every PC can display an alternating black and white rectangle on its monitor. Since none of the PC ports is used, the common problem of an incorrectly configured serial connection disappears entirely, and special PC hardware expertise (which is often needed with serial interfaces) is not required.

Of course, we should not neglect to mention the disadvantages: data can only be transferred from the PC to the PIC, and not in the other direction, and the data transfer rate is slow (around 40 bytes/minute). However, this is not a problem for many applications, where the amount of data to be transferred is anyhow very small.

How it works

A blinking rectangle is generated and displayed on the PC monitor, with pulse-width modulated brightness. This carries the data words in serial form. A phototransistor passes the signals to the microcontroller, which reconstructs the data words.

As can be seen from the schematic diagram in Figure 1, the necessary hardware is very simple. Any standard type of phototransistor can be used for the receiver; two common types are specified on the schematic. The phototransistor is followed by a single amplification stage using a BC548B, which increases the signal level so that it will reliably activate the Schmitt-trigger input of the following monostable. The pulses produced by the monostable are connected directly to the microcontroller port RBO pin for evaluation within the PIC. The PIC shown in the sample circuit uses a 455-kHz ceramic resonator and is wired only to the extent necessary to test the interface program.

Software

A Pascal program that can be used for sending the data bytes from the PC is available on a diskette through the *Elektor Electronics* Readers Services, together with a commented assembly-language program listing for the PIC (order number 996038-1).

The sample program 'ScreenDataFlasher', shown in **Table 1**, demonstrates the function of the screen data interface and transfers a total of 20 bytes with alternating values of FF_{π} and OO_{μ} . An init bit is sent before each data byte; the microcontroller measures the length of this bit. The following data bits are pulse-width mod-

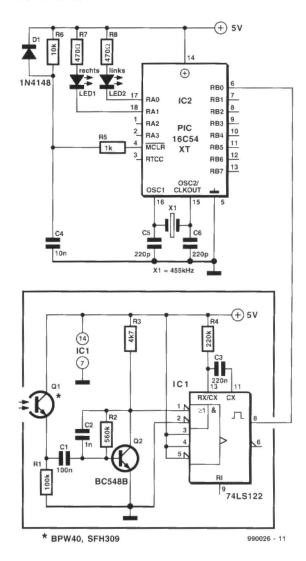


Figure 1. The hardware required for the interface is very simple, consisting of a photo-transistor, an amplifier stage and a monostable.

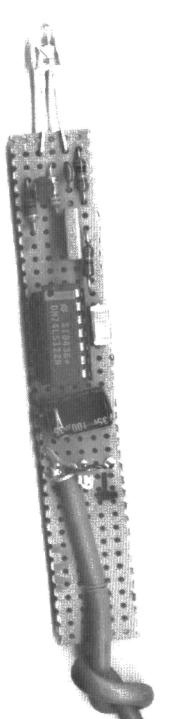
Table 1. Test and demonstration program for the interface.

```
Pascal Listing
Program PCScreenDataFlasher (Input, Output);
Uses Dos, CRT, Graph;
    PointType = record
            x,y: Word;
        end:
Var Var1
                    : Integer;
    Var2, Var3
                    : Integer;
    GraphMode, GraphDriver : Integer;
    x1, y1, Width, Height
                            : Integer:
    MeasInstant
                    : Integer;
const
    Pentagon: array [1..4] of PointType =
    (( x: 50; y:50),
    ( x: 50; y:100),
     ( x: 100; y:100),
     ( x: 100; y:50));
    Dark: FillPatternType = ($00, $00, $00, $00,
                                  $00, $00, $00, $00);
    Bright: FillPatternType =
                                 (SFF, SFF, SFF, SFF,
                                  SFF, SFF, SFF, SFF);
                  = 2000;
    HighLength
                           {length of high pulse}
                   = 1000; {length of low pulse}
    LowLength
```

ulated. All pulses that are longer that the init bit are decoded as '1', and all pulses that are shorter than the init bit are decoded as '0'. The size of the data word is adjustable, with a minimum value of one bit. The actual setting must of course be taken into account in the microcontroller.

The specified time delays may have to be modified to accommodate the PC used and the monitor's vertical repetition rate. Start testing with relatively long delay times and gradually reduce the delays until the data are no longer correctly transferred. If you have questions, you can contact the author via e-mail: Ing. H Bärnthaler at hbaernthaler@mail.carinthia.co.at.

(990026-1)



```
= 1500; {time between bits}
    WaitLength
  InterByteTime = 1000; {time between bytes}
{ In this subroutine the start bit is flashed, its length is
{ measured by the microcontroller.
Procedure InitBit;
Begin
   {transmit Init bit length calculation}
   MeasInstant := LowLength + ((HighLength-LowLength) div 2);
   SetFillPattern (Bright, White);
   FillPoly (SizeOf (Pentagon) div SizeOf(PointType), Pentagon);
   Delay (MeasInstant);
   SetFillPattern (Dark, Black);
   FillPoly (SizeOf (Pentagon) div SizeOf(PointType), Pentagon);
   Delay (WaitLength);
End:
Program start
Begin
   GraphDriver := Detect;
   InitGraph (GraphDriver, GraphMode, 'c:\pascal\graphix');
   readln; {Wait for key pressed}
For Varl := 1 to 10 do
       Begin
              InitBit;
              {supply 8 High Data bit}
              For Var2 := 1 to 8 do
                 Begin
                     {supply High}
                     SetFillPattern (Bright, White);
                     FillPoly (SizeOf (Pentagon) div
                     SizeOf(PointType), Pentagon);
                 Delay (HighLength);
                     SetFillPattern (Dark, Black);
                     FillPoly
                                (SizeOf
                                          (Pentagon)
SizeOf(PointType), Pentagon);
                 Delay (WaitLength);
                 End:
       { wait until next data byte transmitted }
          Delay (InterByteTime);
          InitBit;
              {supply 8 Low Data Bit}
              For Var2 := 1 to 8 do
                 Begin
                     {supply Low}
                     SetFillPattern (Bright, White);
                     FillPoly
                               (SizeOf
SizeOf(PointType), Pentagon);
                 Delay (LowLength);
                     SetFillPattern (Dark, Black);
                 FillPoly
                            (SizeOf
                                        (Pentagon)
                                                       div
SizeOf(PointType), Pentagon);
                 Delay (WaitLength);
              {wait until next data byte is sent}
          Delay (InterByteTime);
       End;
       { display dark again}
   readln;
   CloseGraph;
End.
```

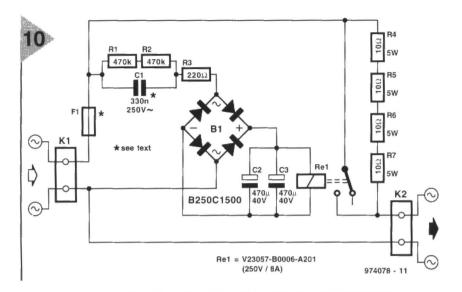


Figure 10. The mains-on delay ensures that the switch-on current remains within certain limit. Two of these delays are required for each Titan 2000.

Figure 11. Printed-circuit board for the mains-on delay circuit, which is not available ready made.

The delay arranges for the load, that is, the Titan 2000, to be switched on in two stages. In the first of these, the switch-on current is limited by series network R4-R7. After the delay determined by capacitors C2 and C3, the series network is shorted by a relay contact, whereupon the full current flows between K_1 and K_2 .

Relay Re₁ can switch up to 2000 VA. Its supply voltage is obtained from the mains with the aid of rectifier B1, capacitor C₁ and resistor R₃.

Since the amplifier power supply uses two mains transformers, two mains-on delay circuits are needed.

Fuse F₁ functions as a primary mains fuse for the amplifier.

Capacitor C₁ is a metallized paper type intended especially for use with mains voltage applications.

Bear in mind that the circuit is linked directly to the mains supply and thus carries lethal voltages.

Next month's third instalment of this article deals with the construction of the amplifier, a few other practical matters, and some measurements.

Parts lists Mains-on delay circuit

Resistors

 $\begin{array}{l} {\rm R_1,\,R_2=470\,k\Omega} \\ {\rm R_3=220\,\Omega} \end{array}$

 $R_4 - R_7 = 10 \Omega, 5 W$

Capacitors:

 $C_1 = 0.33 \,\mu\text{F}, 300 \,\text{V} \,\text{a.c.}$

 C_2 , $C_3 = 470 \,\mu\text{F}$, 40 V

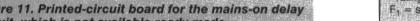
Miscellaneous:

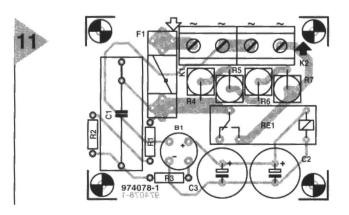
 K_1 , $K_2 = 2$ -way terminal block, pitch 7.5 mm

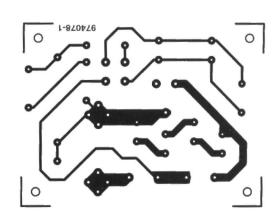
B₁ = bridge rectifier, round, Type B250C1500

 $\mathrm{Re_1} = \mathrm{relay}$, coil 12 V, 1200 Ω ; contact rating 250 V, 8 A

F₁ = see text



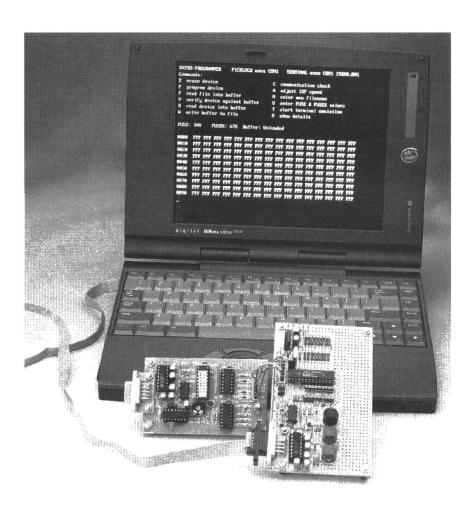




SX-microcontroller evaluation system (2)

part 2: the programming adaptor

In this second instalment of the series we
present the PICKALOCK programming
adaptor, which acts as
the link between the
programming software on the PC and
the SX-microcontroller
on the prototyping or
application board. In
this configuration, a
high-speed Atmel
controller acts as a
protocol converter.



Last month we showed you that the timing of the SX chips is pretty rapid when serial programming is used, and that the timing protocols are fairly strict. After due consideration, the designer came to the conclusion that an 8051 micro clocked at 18 MHz should really be able to handle all communication with the SX chip. The result of the design work is the PICK-ALOCK programming adaptor, whose

circuit diagram is shown in Figure 1. Microcontroller IC3 is the heart of the circuit. Instead of the 'generic' 8051, a more up to date version, the Atmel 89C2051 is used in the circuit. Regular Elektor Electronics readers should know this chip from quite a few earlier publications. The link with the PC is established by serial interface driver IC1. The serial protocol is 19200,8,N,1. A switching regulator around IC6 supplies the

Design by M. Ohsmann

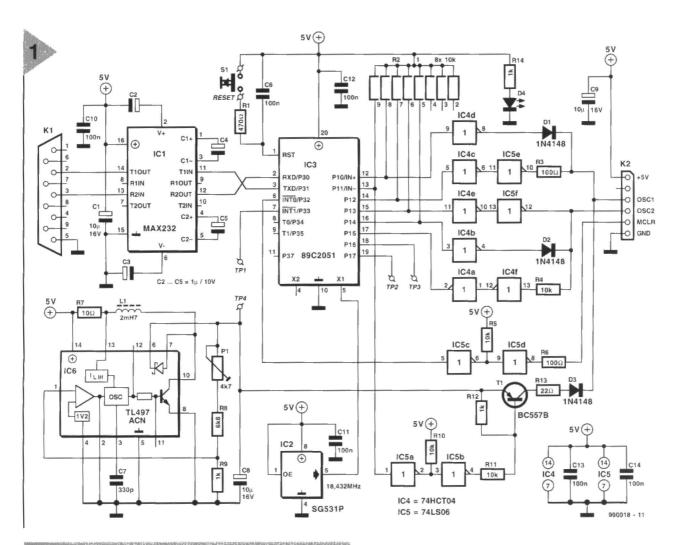


Figure 1. Circuit diagram of the PICKALOCK programming adaptor for SX microcontrollers.

12.5 V which is necessary to switch the SX processor to 'programming' mode. An integrated clock oscillator, IC2, is employed, operating at 18.432 MHz. Circuits IC4 and IC5 form the link between IC3 and the SX chip. The programming voltage may be connected to the OSC1 line by way of transistor T1. The same line may be switched to 5 V with the aid of IC4d and D1. The open-collector output of IC5e and resistor R3 enable the OSC1 line to be pulled to ground. A similar system is used on data line OSC2. Via IC4a and IC4f, processor IC3 is able to read the level on the line. The complete interface to the SX chip is configured in such a way that lines OSC1 and OSC2 are at high impedance during the reset state of IC3 (for example, after switching on). In this way, a quartz crystal oscillator circuit (as described in part 1) is allowed to oscillate on OSC1 and OSC2. The SX chip may also be reset by way of IC5c and IC5d. The +5-V supply voltage is borrowed from the SX-circuit to be programmed, via the 5-V pin on connector K2.

The photograph shows the SX evaluation board. The connections between the SX-PICKALOCK and the

SX chip should be kept as short as possible,

because stray capacitance and inductance (introduced by long wires) will degrade the oscillation behaviour of the SX quartz oscillator circuit in the frequency range 10 MHz and higher.

CONSTRUCTION AND FIRST USE

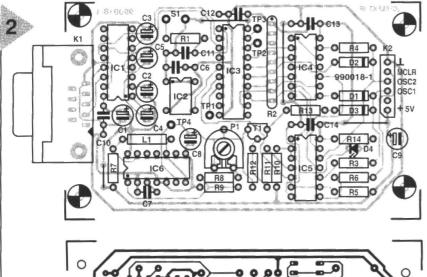
The copper track layout and component mounting plan of the single-sided printed circuit board developed for the programming adaptor are shown in **Figure 2**. As a matter of course, all ICs should be fitted in sockets. On pinheader K2, it is recommended to cut off the non-used pin between OSC1 and +5 V. By inserting the pin in the mating socket, the socket can not be fitted the wrong way around — a simple trick that can prevent a lot of problems.

While you build up the board, do not forget the wire links. Also note that K1 (RS232 interface) is a sub-D socket (i.e., a female connector). After a thorough visual inspection of the board, the circuit may be connected to 5 volts by way of the 5-V pin on K2. Next, check the operation of the switching regulator IC4, and if TP4 can be set to 12.7 V by adjusting preset P1. Then, having connected a PC running a terminal emula-

tor program set to 19200,8,N,1 communication, the SX-PICKALOCK should produce a start-up message when IC3 is reset by pressing S1. Not much can go wrong, we'd say, provided you've done a proper soldering job.

FUNCTION OF THE SX-PICKALOCK

Actually, the programming adaptor only acts as a protocol converter. For that purpose, the PICKALOCK software stashed away in IC3 provides a number of functions. Although functionally essential, they are not terribly important to you, the user, mainly because the actual programming software runs on the PC, with the code in IC3 just acting as 'glue' between the PC software and the SX chip to be programmed. None the less, a description of the interface control software may be found on the diskette supplied for this project. It should be noted that some of the available commands can also be used to perform tests on the PICKALOCK hardware. These tests are remnants of the design work, and they are obviously not required once the hardware is fully functional. For example, routines are available that enable the ports of IC3 to be read and controlled as part of an integral hardware test procedure.



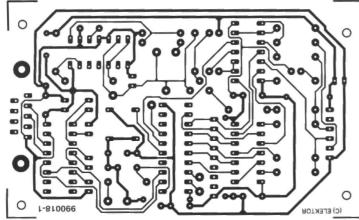


Figure 2. PCB artwork (board available ready-made).

USING THE SX-PICKALOCK

Scenix SX microcontrollers may be programmed by launching program, PICALOCK control SXPRO.EXE, on the PC. These microcontrollers may also be read, erased and reprogrammed. The FUSE and DEVICE words may be set up as required if that has not been done already in assembler code.

The simple user interface offered by the SXPRO program is shown in Figure 3. Files generated by our SX assembler are processed directly. Although this may appear a ready to go situation, you should not forget that you first have to build a test board with the new processor.

SX DEMO BOARDS AND PROGRAMS

An SX experiment/prototyping board will be discussed in next month's instalment (part 3 of the series). Originally, there were two separate boards, one for the SX18 version and one for the SX28. The final product, however, is a single board that can be used by both processor versions. This board is already shown on a couple of photographs.

Apart from the construction of the prototyping board, next month's instalment will also deal with programming the SX controllers.

(990018-1)

COMPONENTS LIST

Resistors:

 $R1 = 470\Omega$ $R2 = 10k\Omega$ 8-way SIL array

 $R3,R6 = 100\Omega$

 $R4,R5,R10,R11 = 10k\Omega$

B7 = 100

 $R8 = 6k\Omega 8$

 $R9,R12,R14 = 1k\Omega$

 $R13 = 22\Omega$

 $P1 = 4k\Omega 7$

Capacitors:

 $C1.C8.C9 = 10\mu F 16V \text{ radial}$

 $C2-C5 = 1\mu F 16V$ C6,C10-C14 = 100nF ceramic

C7 = 330pF ceramic

Inductor:

L1 = 2mH7 (74mA)

Semiconductors:

D1,D2,D3 = 1N4148

D4 = LED (high-efficiency)

T1 = BC557B

IC1 = MAX232 (Maxim)

IC2 = SG531P, 18.4320MHz (Epson)

IC3 = 89C2051, programmed, order

code 996506-1 IC4 = 74HCT04

IC5 = 74LS06

IC6 = TL497ACN

Miscellaneous:

K1 = 9-way sub-D socket (female), angled, PCB mount

S1 = push-button (make contact)

K2 = 6-way pinheader (see text)

Case: e.g. Bopla E430 Diskette, order code 996007-1

PCB, order code 990018-1

Figure 3. SXPRO user interface.

SXPRO-PROGRAMMER Commands:

erase device

program device read file into buffer

verify device against buffer read device into buffer

write buffer to file

PICKLOCK uses COM2

TERMINAL uses COM1 19200,8N1

communication check

adjust ISP speed enter new filename

enter FUSE & FUSEX values

start terminal emulation

show details

FUSEX: 973 Buffer: Unloaded FUSE: 265

FFF यमस यमन यमन यमन यमन यमन यमन यमन यमन यमन 0010 नयम समय समय समय समय मनम 0020 FFF नमन नमन मनन नमन नमन नमन ममन ममन ममन FFF FFF FFF FFF FFF 0030 FFF FFF FFF FFF FFF FFF ਜ'ਜ'ਜ FFF

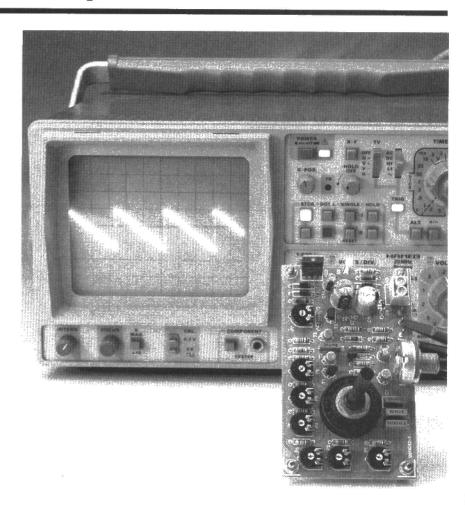
0040 FFF 0060 FFF FFF FFF FFF FFF FFF FFF FFF

0070 FFF 0080 FFF FFF

circuit testing with a sawtooth

audio measurements in theory and practice

Many experts in the field query the use of sinewave signals to test amplifiers and other audio gear. Although a rectangular signal is in principle suitable for many measurements, the sawtooth is believed by many to be a much better test signal. The combination of this test signal and an oscilloscope should enable you to give an expert opinion about audio equipment performance.



Specification

Waveform: inverted sawtooth
Frequencies: 100 Hz; 315 Hz; 1 kHz, 3.15 kHz, 10 kHz, 31.5 kHz
Rise time <1% of period

Linearity error Output voltage: Sync pulse: Power supply:

<1%max. 3.5-4 V_{pp} positive, max. 4 V_{pp} 12 V, approx 1.3 W

Design by F. Hueber

When it comes to testing audio equipment with the aid of a sinewave signal, you first require a generator with very low distortion. Unfortunately, most function generators have a distortion between 1 and 3%, which makes them unsuitable for this particular application. AF generators of the Wien bridge type are to be preferred here because of their much better specification (distortion typically 0.01%). And yet, this distortion level may well be much higher than that of the equipment under test. What's more, measuring distortion and frequency response often equates to lots of individual measurements. Thing become even more complicated when you want to determine the dynamic range or overall stability of an amplifier under test. A simple sinewave signal, clean as it may be, is simply not suitable for that purpose. Likewise, judging the 'sonic quality' of, say, a power amplifier, is almost impossible with just a sinewave signal.

A pure sin-wave has a *crest factor* of 2 or about 1.41. The crest factor is the ratio of the peak value to the effective value. However, with music signals, or noise (percussion), this value can easily rise to 10 or higher. Consequently, an amplifier that performs very well under sinewave testing conditions may produce mediocre results when music or speech signals are applied.

This is due to the fact that a highperformance amplifier should be able to handle very fast signal rise times (often in the μ s range) and still supply a clean output signal.

For music reproduction a frequency that just about covers the audible range (upper limit 16-20 kHz) is obviously too narrow. Good amplifiers these days go up to about 100 kHz, provided the slew rate is adequate. Again, these qualities are almost impossible to measure with just a sinewave.

Consequently, rectangular test signals are often used to put audio amplifiers through their paces, and subject them to some pretty gruelling tests. In practice, the response of an amplifier to rectangular signals says a lot about its sonic qualities. An advantage of the rectangular wave over the sinewave is its higher harmonics content. Consequently, you can do tests at the fundamental frequency of the rectangle signal as well as at much higher frequencies. It should be noted, however, that besides the fundamental frequency a rectangular wave contains only oddnumbered harmonics (3nt, 5th, 7th, etc.). So, a sawtooth signal would be even better. In principle, the sawtooth contains all harmonic frequencies (2nd, 3rd, 4h, 5h, etc.), again in addition to the fundamental frequency, so that the complete spectrum is always available.

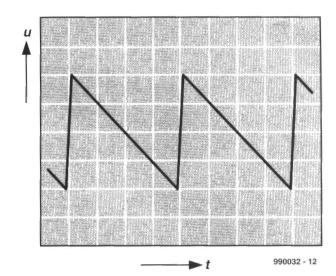


Figure 1. Negative (inverted) sawtooth.

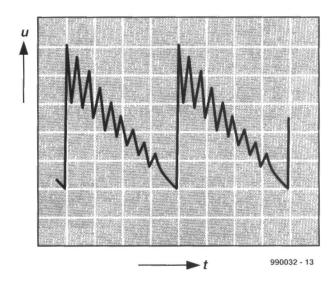


Figure 2. Amplifier suffering from a tendency to oscillate.

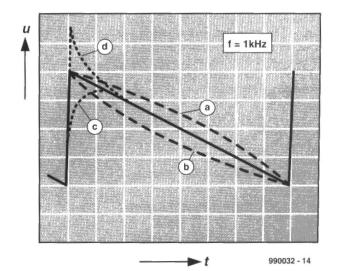


Figure 3. Effect on the frequency response.

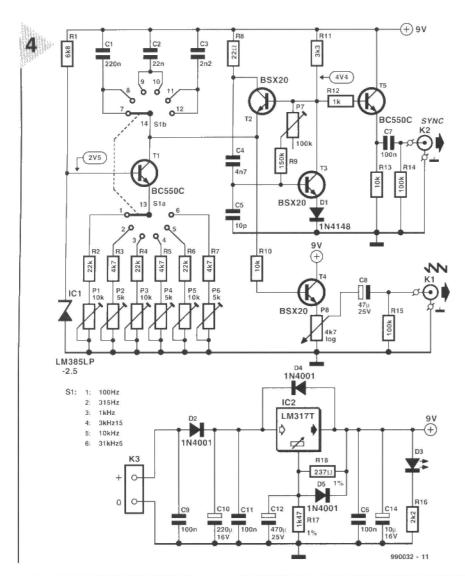


Figure 4. Circuit diagram of the simple sawtooth generator.

BETTER NEGATIVE THAN POSITIVE

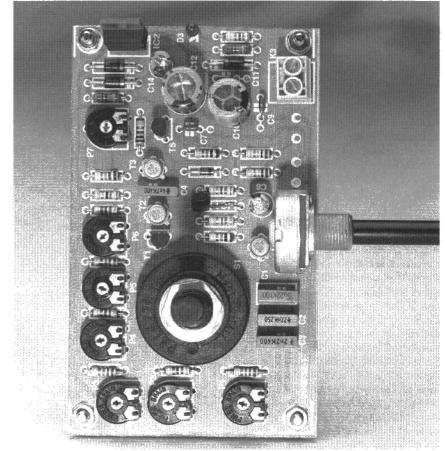
Unfortunately, the 'regular' (positive) sawtooth as supplied by many function generators is still not ideal when it comes to testing a wide range of audio equipment. One period of such a positive sawtooth signal consists of a slowly rising slope followed by a sharp falling edge. For our specific purpose, however, the inverted form, a 'negative' sawtooth, is better suited. Its shape is shown in Figure 1. Each period starts with a sharp rise, followed by a slow and gradual downward slope.

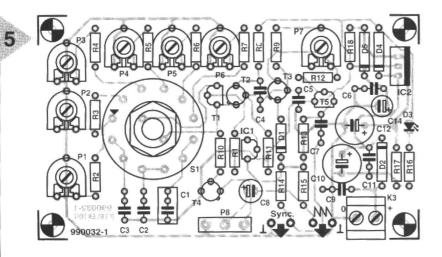
The main advantage of this waveform is that its fast edge will disclose any instability of the equipment under test. The oscilloscope picture in **Figure 2** shows the output signal of an amplifier with insufficient compensation for inductive loads. The tendency to oscillate is clearly visible.

Using a sawtooth test signal, only the best amplifiers will produce a faithful copy of the input signal, provided the frequency response is reasonably flat. After all, irregularities in the frequency response are also easily noticed if you use a sawtooth test signal. As shown in Figure 3, the effect is easily demonstrated on a tone control section when using a sawtooth test signal with a not too high frequency. If an amplifier or any other audio circuit has a (hidden) bass boost, the falling edge of the signal is slightly curved upwards (dashed line marked 'a'). If the low-frequency amplification is reduced, the falling edge 'droops' (b). If, by contrast, the equipment attenuates high frequencies, the upper part of the edge will be less steep, and the 'front' part of the signal becomes slightly curved (dotted line 'c'). Similarly, unwanted high-boost is indicated by this part being pulled up.

With a little practice, this measuring method can provide many interesting viewpoints concerning the functioning of amplifiers, filters and similar circuits. The sawtooth is also useful for those of you interested in testing and 'grading' cassette decks and other tape recording machines. For example, recording and playing back the 3.15-kHz test signal will provide lots of information on the optimum 'bias' level (pre-magnetisation) for a particular tape brand.

Another example is the compensation adjustment on a typical 10:1 oscilloscope probe — here, too, a sawtooth test signal results in easier and more accurate calibration than when the





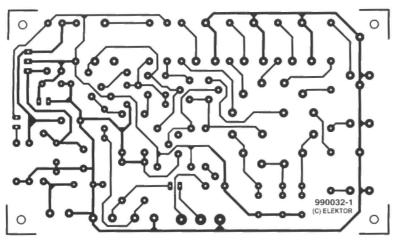


Figure 5. PCB design.

flaky square wave from the oscilloscope itself is used.

Interesting and sometimes surprising facts may also be learned by first examining and comparing the output signal of an amplifier connected to a dummy load (i.e., a pure resistance), and then connect the output to a reallife load, that is, a loudspeaker. The results will clearly indicate why the combination (amplifier and loudspeaker) may not achieve a certain sonic quality, while there is nothing ostensibly wrong with the performance of the individual units.

An obvious requirement with all tests is that the equipment under examination is not overdriven. On the oscilloscope, overdriving is indicated by rounded signal tops ('clipping'), just as with any other waveform. The sawtooth waveform is then transformed in a trapezoid voltage, and everything

mentioned so far is then subject to more than one serious limitation.

The desired waveform called 'negative sawtooth' may, of course, be obtained from any generator with a positive sawtooth output, simply by inverting the signal. However, doing so may cause problems with the signal linearity and rise time. In general, it will be better to use a purpose designed generator, and such an instrument is described here.

A SIMPLE SAWTOOTH GENERATOR

Although a negative sawtooth is eminently suited as a test signal, this particular waveform is rarely found on commercial function generators and similar instruments. The simple generator described here requires only a handful of commonly available parts, yet guarantees excellent performance.

As shown in Figure 4, the generator proper is built from discrete parts only,

COMPONENTS LIST

Resistors:

 $R1 = 6k\Omega 8$

 $R2,R4,R6 = 2k\Omega2$ $R3,R5,R7 = 4k\Omega 7$

 $R8 = 22\Omega$

 $R9 = 150k\Omega$

 $R10,R13 = 10k\Omega$

 $R11 = 3k\Omega 3$

 $R12 = 1k\Omega$

 $R14,R15 = 100k\Omega$

 $R16 = 2k\Omega 2$

 $R17 = 1k\Omega 47.1\%$ metal film

 $R18 = 237\Omega$ 1% metal film P1,P3,P5 = $10k\Omega$ preset

 $P2,P4,P6 = 5k\Omega$ preset

 $P7 = 100k\Omega$ preset

 $P8 = 4k\Omega7$ potentiometer, logarithmic

Capacitors:

C1 = 220nF

C2 = 22nFC3 = 2nF2

C4 = 4nF7

C5 = 10pF

C6,C7,C9,C11 = 100nF

 $C8 = 47\mu F 25V radial$

C10 = 220 F 16V radial

C12 = 470µF 25V radial

C14 = 10uF 16V radial

Semiconductors:

D1 = 1N4148

D2,D4,D5 = 1N4001

D3 = low-current LED

T1,T5 = BC550C

T2,T3,T4 = BSX20

IC1 = LM385LP-2.5 IC2 = LM317T

Miscellaneous:

S1 = rotary switch, 2 poles, 6 posi-

tions, PCB mount.

K1.K2 = BNC socket, chassis mount K3 = 2-way PCB terminal block,

raster 5mm

PCB, order code 990032-1 (see

Readers Services page)

including transistors. Together with voltage reference element IC1, transistor T1 acts as a constant-current source. Depending on the frequency range selected with switch S1, one of the potentiometer-resistor combinations causes a certain constant current to be generated in the emitter line of T1. This current is used to charge capacitors C1, C2 and C3. Each of these is responsible for two frequency ranges. Once the voltage across the capacitor reaches the turn-on level of T2, this transistor starts to conduct, the collector current generating a 'dip' at current limiter resistor



ULTIBOARD STUDIO LITE INCL. VAT

The Studio Lite consists of ULTIcap schematic capture, ULTIboard PCB design and ULTIroute GXR autorouter. Both Windows 95 and DOS versions are included in the CD-ROM. Actually you only pay for the 5 manuals !In which, besides tutorials and manuals, even shapes are described! Ideal forhobby and study and with sufficient capacity (500 pins). If higher capacity is needed you can opt (now or later) for an upgrade to the Studio Unlimited, without capacity limits, for £ 68 (incl. VAT). There are no further options or hidden extras, the *ULTIboard Studio program is complete!*

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REPLYCARD ELSEWHERE SEE ALSO

Harmonics

Harmonics are oscillations of a periodic quantity, present in a complex signal, having a frequency that is an integral multiple of the fundamental frequency. A sinewave signal should be as pure as possible, which means that it should have as few as possible harmonics. If harmonics are present, they should have the lowest possible level (small distortion). The actual number of harmonics associated with a sinewave, and in particular their level, is strongly dependent on the elementary design of the generator, as well as on components used, and is difficult to predict. By contrast, the waveform supplied by rectangular-wave

By contrast, the waveform supplied by rectangular-wave and sawtooth generators is accurately determined by the number of harmonics, at least the lower-order ones, and the harmonic levels may be calculated approximately. As a rule of thumb, the discrete level of a harmonic is the reciprocal of the number of harmonics, multiplied by the level of the fundamental signal. In an equation,

 $V_H = (1/n) \times V_F$

where

 $V_H = level of harmonic$

n = number of harmonic (2, 3, 4, ...)

 V_F = level of fundamental signal

For example, assuming you have a available a 1-kHz signal with a level of 3 V, the level of the 4th harmonic equals

 $V_H = (1/4) \times 3 = 0.75 V$

Expressed in decibels (dB) this equates to

 $20 \log (3/0.75) = 12 dB$

below the level of the fundamental frequency.

R8. Via capacitor C4 this dip arrives at transistor T3, causes it to block, so that its collector and the base of T2 will be pulled to a high potential. This potential change causes T2 to conduct abruptly, allowing the selected capacitor to be rapidly discharged.

The sawtooth generator employs an old faithful: the BSX20 transistor, a fast switching device which has been with us for more than 25 years. General-purpose AF transistors are used in the constant-current source and the synchronisation driver stage. Thanks to the above mentioned feedback, the sawtooth is characterised by extremely short rise times.

Diode D1 lifts the emitter potential of T3 by a constant level above ground, enabling the base to become more negative than the emitter. In this way, the transistor can be switched off rapidly and completely. For proper functioning of the circuit it is necessary to have a defined potential at the collector of T3. Preset potentiometer P7 allows this potential to be adjusted, independent of the current gain of T3.

By way of decoupling resistors R10, the sawtooth voltage at the emitter of T2 is fed to emitter follower T4. The output voltage is taken from the wiper of potentiometer R8 in the emitter line. Via C8, the output signal arrives dcfree at output socket K1. To enable small output voltage levels to be set with sufficient accuracy, pot P8 should be a logarithmic type.

The feedback pulse supplied by T3 is fed to sync output socket K2 by way

of another emitter follower, T5. The sync signal appears at the same time as the rising edge of the sawtooth, and is useful to keep an oscilloscope triggered.

The mains power supply is a conventional design. Because of the low current drain, a small (single-winding) transformer is sufficient, together with a single-phase rectifier and a fairly large smoothing capacitor, C10, for ripple suppression. Alternatively, the transformer and rectifier may be replaced by a low-power mains adaptor (cheaper and safer).

Because the stability and purity of the supply voltage affect the quality of the output voltage, the voltage regulator section is a bit more extensive than usual. The stabilising element, an LM317, is set to supply an output voltage of 9 V by means of R17 and R18. The Adj(ust) input of the LM317 has an additional decoupling capacitor, C12. The resulting output voltage is cleaner and much more stable than would be possible when using, say, a 7809 fixed-voltage regulator. The LM317 has to be fitted with a small heatsink.

Without LED D3, the circuit draws about 3.5 mA. Include the LED and the current still remains low at about 13.5 mA. Because the generator can work off a 5-V supply without major modifications to the circuit, battery-powering using a 9-V PP3 block is a feasible option. Resistors R17 and R18 then have to be changed accordingly. Also, because the indicated frequencies are roughly doubled at a supply volt-

age of 5 V, resistors R2-R6 have to be suitably modified (i.e., their value has to be increased).

CONSTRUCTION AND ADJUSTMENT

To keep unwanted signals out of the circuit, the generator is best fitted in a metal enclosure with (approximate) dimensions 150x60x100 mm.

Building up the circuit board shown in Figure 5 should not present problems, we reckon, because only a few common parts are involved. However, do make sure you fit the polarized components the right way around; these include the electrolytic capacitors, diodes and transistors in TO18 case (emitter marked by a small locating tab). The circuit is powered by a small mains adapter capable of supplying at least 12 V d.c.

Having switched on the circuit, the first thing to do is check the presence of the reference and supply voltages. Next, P7 is adjusted to give a collector voltage of between 4.3 V and 4.5 V on T3. This is an important adjustment because it determines to a large extent the frequency calibration, output signal level and the total functioning of the generator.

Next, adjust P1-P6 to give the desired frequencies, using a frequency meter connected to output K1. Preset P7 should not be adjusted again at this stage because all frequency settings depend on it.

(990032-1)

GREAT NEWS FOR YOU!



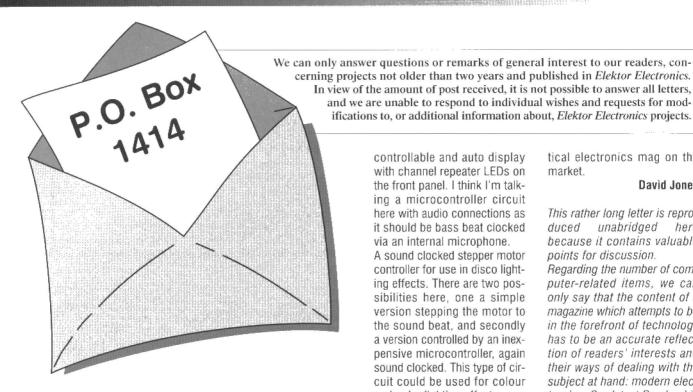
Over the past 11 years ULTImate Technology supplied more than 20.000 commercial versions, but also thousands of educational versions, which, having no Gerber Interface (high resolution photoplotter) are not suitable for commercial use, but are otherwise, identical to the, naturally far more expensive, commercial versions. After a worldwide test on Internet the ULTIboard Studio evolved, with the same well-considered limitation, at a price at which everybody can afford a professional design system.

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ULTIBOARD STUDIO LITE INCL. VAT

SEE ALSO THE REPLYCARD ELSEWHERE IN THIS ISSUE



Memory change-over tip

Dear Editor — with reference to L. Lemmens' useful tip (005, page 57, December 1998), I wonder if you've noticed you can do the same thing using +/- in, say, BASIC:

A = A + B

B=A-B

A=A-B

You can extend the idea to swap strings:

A\$=A\$+B\$

B\$=LEFT\$(A\$,LEN(A\$-LEN (B\$))

A\$=RIGHT\$(A\$,LEN(A\$)-L EN(B\$))

Danny Langton, by email

Elektor Electronics — Contents

Dear Editor — as one of your long term subscription readers I feel it is about time to air some of my views concerning the type of projects currently being featured in the magazine. Firstly then, the complaint. It may well not surprise you to learn that I think you are producing far too many projects for, and features on, computers. Most of the projects have rather limited use an appeal to the average reader, how many of your readers who own a computer actually use their machine to perform tasks more technical than a word processor, a game player or to surf the net(?) — and oh yes, we must not forget using a computer to reproduce some very awful holiday photographs in an equally awful digital form. Perhaps some help in actually learning how to operate and get the best of the average PC would be in order, particularly in the case of some of your more mature readers. As a Windows 95/Coraldraw 8 operator (take the word 'operator' with a pinch of salt, please) I think I am on the rung below the one listed as 'illiterate'.

Now to some suggestions for future projects:

A stereo PA slave amplifier with the basic spec of 200/300 W rms into 8R, using easily obtainable FET output transistors (BUZ series), simple rugged design (similar to your advertiser's BK Electronics' products), a volume control, soft start. LS protection and an LED output meter calibrated in watts - this last feature would make a good stand-alone project as I can't remember the last time an audio output meter was featured. If you decide to do the meter project it should be versatile to show outputs from say 100 to 400 or 500 watts (there are a lot of very high power amps out there these days).

A four channel lighting controller for DJ's featuring a user controllable and auto display with channel repeater LEDs on the front panel. I think I'm talking a microcontroller circuit here with audio connections as it should be bass beat clocked via an internal microphone.

A sound clocked stepper motor controller for use in disco lighting effects. There are two possibilities here, one a simple version stepping the motor to the sound beat, and secondly a version controlled by an inexpensive microcontroller, again sound clocked. This type of circuit could be used for colour and gobo lighting effects.

My final comments concern the components used in projects. There is still a tendency to use ICs that are difficult to source in the UK unless one knows where to look. It is all very well to name the component manufacturer but it would be very much better to name a UK stockist. For example, I was recently looking for a Phillips (sic, Ed.) IC, the heart of one of your recent projects and not one of the six Phillips franchise holders that I spoke to could supply the part — that is unless I was prepared to order 100 off and wait six weeks for delivery, and then only two of them could offer that! Capacitors are the other problem. Normally in the parts listing you only state the type of capacitor to use for critical parts of the circuit, but what about the less critical parts, should they be polyester, polycarb, MKT, ceramic or what? I think it would also be a good idea to state the ripple value of high value electrolytic capacitors, as this would aid the selection of the correct capacitor for the circuit.

I hope that these observations and suggestions will be regarded as constructive and I look forward to seeing the results in future editions of the best prac-

tical electronics mag on the market

David Jones

This rather long letter is reproduced unabridged because it contains valuable points for discussion.

Regarding the number of computer-related items, we can only say that the content of a magazine which attempts to be in the forefront of technology has to be an accurate reflection of readers' interests and their ways of dealing with the subject at hand: modern electronics. Our latest Readership Survey indicates that the majority of readers find the balance between computer and non-computer-related projects just right. With this in mind, we strive to keep the amount of computer stuff in each magazine within reason, although many of our younger readers are clamouring out for more. As you may have noticed, our computer articles are always related to electronics in the widest sense of the word, and nearly always about hardware and software you will not easily find in the highstreet computer shop.

Suggestions for future projects are always welcome and yours have been copied to our design department. A high-power audio amp, -- well your wish is our command as you can see from the Titan 2000 article of which the second part is included in this very issue.

Some of the components used in our projects are, admittedly, rather special. However, mentioning one UK supplier would provoke letters from half a dozen others claiming to have supplies also, and always after publication of the relevant article! Two of our advertisers, C-I Electronics and Stippler Elektronik, supply kits for many of our projects, as well as 'difficult to source' individual components. Arguably, their exact

function is to buy the 100 components you mention from, say, Philips Semiconductors (not 'Phillips'), and then sell them to you. You may object to this, but it is the simple and whole purpose of retail business: buy in volume quantities, sell as one-off. Stippler Elektronik have a UK outlet also: Viewcom Electronics, so if you prefer to Buy British that is the way to go. C-I Electronics are fully set up to deal with credit card payment, advertise and correspond in English, so with them too borders are virtually non-existent (within the EU). By the way, you do not mention the type number of the IC you were after — we may have been able to help you with pointers in the right direction. Capacitors, then. Our design department advises that where no particular make, style or

dielectric material is mentioned, the part is indeed so uncritical that any one the types you mention will work without problems. In case of doubt, guidance may be obtained from the photographs included in the article, or simply ask us!

Tachometer — inductive pick-up?

Dear Editor — your article covering a DIY tachometer (*Elektor Electronics* October 1998) states that ignition pulses are picked up inductively. I think this is misleading. To be able to generate a voltage inductively, a changing magnetic field has to be sent through the inductor. There is no such field. The magnetic field caused by the ignition current does not pass through the coil but

appears at a right angle from it. So in fact we are looking at capacitive coupling at the 'hot' side of the coil.

K. Williams

If we doze off from time to time, there's always someone to prod us awake! Of course you are right. Our apologies for this slip of the pen.

PC-Controlled light Dimmer — watt's up?

Dear Editor — I was delighted to see the PC-controlled 32-channel light dimmer in the December 1998 magazine. With some surprise I noticed that the maximum power per channel is only 275 watts. As far as I know, the smallest theatre spotlight weighs in at 500 watt. Are you aware of any opto-triacs for higher power, or

is there another way to increase the power in each channel?

K. Verstraeten

The problem is not caused by the opto-triacs, because with sufficient cooling these are capable of passing up to 8 A (approx. 1900 W). However, suppressor choke L1 has a highest rating of 10 A, and this value is also the safe limit for the PCB tracks and the PCB terminal block. The 500-watt lamps you mention may be controlled by adding not more than four opto-triacs per PCB, and increasing the fuse ratings to 2.5 A (slow).

To still be able to use 32 channels, simply use more PCBs (in this case, eight), connected in parallel to RS232 port on your computer.

CORRECTIONS updates

DC-DC Step-Up Converter

January 1999, 980073 Electrolytic capacitors C4 and C9 are shown with the wrong polarity in the circuit diagram, Figure 1. The relevant PCB layout is all right.

Portable Sound-Pressure Meter January 1998, 970085

The text alongside Figure 5 should be changed to read: Measure the potential U_{REF1} , across pins 4 and 7 of IC2 and then connect a voltmeter across pins 4 and 7 of IC3.

Tachometer

October 1998, 980077 In the parts list and the circuit diagram, the value of R1 should be corrected to read $2.2~k\Omega$.

SWITCHBOARD

Switchboard allows PRIVATE READERS of *Elektor Electronics* one FREE advertisement of up to 106 characters, including spaces, commas, numerals, etc., per month. The advertisement MUST relate to electronics, and it MUST INCLUDE a private telephone number or name and address; post office boxes are NOT acceptable.

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For Sale Tektronix 7403N 50 MHz oscilloscope with 7A18 dual-trace amplifier and 7B50 timebase. 9.76 x 12.2 cm display. G.W.O. Original manuals. £250. Kevin Walsh (01703) 454586 (Hants).

Wanted Speedwire terminals to finish degree college project. Need up to 1000, will pay for any costs. Phone Brendon Shaw on (1255) 24100 or email b.shaw@btinternet.com

For Sale Tektronix 'scope, 100 MHz, display readout etc., £250. Julian Nolan (0181) 848 6516 (w); (01442) 891 294 (h).

Wanted FM tuner as featured in Elektor, March-July 1992. Must be working. Phone T. Bann (01925) 629767.

Wanted Pen pals and circuit diagram or kit of FM transmitter range 1 km to 5 km. G. Pradeep, Thriveni Kalarcode, Alappuzha – 688003, India.

Wanted Computer AMC-100, want 'entrails'. Operating system is CP/N, not DOS. Juhani Heino, Voikkaantie 10, 45910 Voikkaa, Finland.

For Sale 45 PSU PCBs, 40W, I/P 240 VAC, 0/P +5V (x2), +12V, −12V, at up to 4A. All working, £5 each o.n.o. Tel. Paul Entwistle (01942) 706769.

Recently discovered, a Leak 30 Amplifier. Would enjoy communicating with someone knowledgeable about this very rare (in the USA) unit. Please email Joseph Kelly on techsvs@ahc.sbceo.k112.ca.us

The content of this note is based on information received from manufacturers in the electrical and electronics industries or their representatives and does not imply practical experience by Elektor Electronics or its consultants.

EL lamp driver Type IMP803

high voltage on chip

EL (electroluminescent) lamps are used primarily for the background lighting required by liquidcrystal display panels used in much battery operated equipment where low current drain is a prime requirement. The

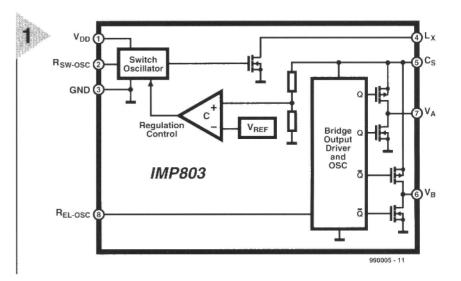


Figure 1. Circuit diagram of the IMP803 EL lamp driver.

IMP803 driver for such lamps contains the requisite basic circuits: a switch-mode power supply using a high-frequency oscillator and a high-voltage H-bridge output driver using a low-frequency oscillator. It can drive lamps of up to 30 nF (10 in²) to high brightness.

Main parameters

→ Low power:

- 420 µA typical input current
- → Wide operating voltage range:

- 2.0-6.0 V
- → 180 V peak-to-peak typical a.c. output voltage
- → Large output load capability: drives lamps with up to 30 nF capacitance to full brightness
- → Adjustable output lamp frequency for control of lamp colour, lamp life, and power consumption
- → Adjustable converter frequency to minimize power consumption
- → Device can be enabled/disabled
- → Low quiescent current:

- → High-voltage CMOS process

20 nA (disabled)

INTRODUCTION

Although the IMP803 is intended for driving EL lamps of up to 30 nF capacitance to high brightness, it can drive lamps with greater capacitance, but not to full light output.

The typical regulated output voltage that is applied to the EL lamp is 180 V_{p-p} The device requires few external components as shown in Figure 2: a single inductor, a single catch diode, two capacitors, and three resistors. Two of these resistors set the frequency for two internal oscillators.

The IMP803 operates over supply voltage range of 2.0-6.0 V. A regulated, low-power source can supply the low quiescent current of the device. The inductor may be driven from a higher supply voltage in dual supply applications.

An internal circuit shuts down the switching regulator when the lamp drive voltage reaches 180 V p-p. This

An IMP, Inc. Application

conserves power and extends battery life.

The IMP803 can also be operated from a single battery when a regulated voltage higher than 2.0 V is available.

The dual supply configuration shown in Figure 2 uses the regulated voltage to operate the IMP803 while the energy for the high-voltage boost comes from the battery. The current to run the internal logic is typically 420 μ A. The circuit in Figure 2 can also be used with batteries that exceed 6.5 V as long as V_{DD} does not exceed 6.0 V.

EXTERNAL COMPONENTS

The function of the external components shown in Figure 2 are described below.

The catch diode is a fast reverse recovery type with a reverse bias voltage greater than 100 V. A Type 1N4148 meets these requirements.

Capacitor C_s is a high-voltage type that stores the inductive energy transferred through the catch diode. Its recommended value is $0.01-0.1 \,\mu\text{F}$ at a voltage rating of $100 \, \text{V}$.

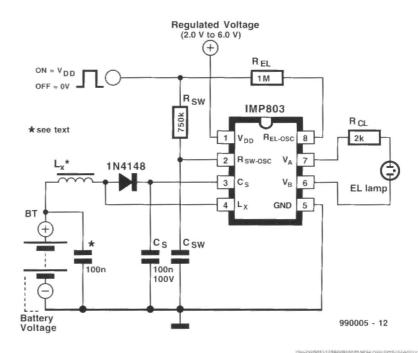
Capacitor $C_{\rm sw}$ is a noise-suppression component connected between ground and the $R_{\rm sw-OSC}$ pin, It has a recommended value of $0.001\,\mu{\rm F}$

Resistor R_{EL} is the frequency setting component for the EL lamp oscillator. Connected between the R_{EL-OSC} pin and V_{DD}, it provides an oscillator frequency that is inversely proportional to its value, that is, when R_{EL} increases, the EL lamp frequency decreases along with the current drawn by the lamp. Lamp colour is also determined by this frequency. A resistance value of $2 M\Omega$ results in a lamp frequency of about 350 Hz; a value of 1 M Ω gives a frequency of around 700 Hz. When the resistor, together with R_{sw}, is linked to ground instead of to VDD, the IC is disabled.

Resistor R_{SW} , connected between the R_{SW-OSC} pin and V_{DD} , sets the frequency of the switch-mode oscillator. The switching frequency is inversely proportional to the resistance value, dropping as the resistance increases.

Inductor L_x provides the requisite voltage by inductive flyback. The internal MOSFET switch alternately opens and closes the ground connection for the inductor at the L_x pin. When this internal switch opens, the inductor potential will forward-bias the catch diode and the current will pass through the storage capacitor, $C_{\rm s}$, charging it to a high voltage. The recommended type of inductor is a Murata LQH4N561K04, which has a d.c. resistance of 14.5 Ω and an inductance of about 500 μ H.

Lower value inductors are preferred to prevent saturation. As the value of the inductor rises (and the



series d.c. resistance of the inductor decreases), the switching frequency set by R_{SW} should be increased to prevent saturation. In general, lower value inductors that can handle more current are desirable when larger area EL lamps are to be driven.

The size of the lamp is important to the operation of the IMP803. Larger lamps will draw more current requiring more power dissipation in the IMP803. An external resistor in series with the lamp, $R_{\rm CL}$, will protect the output drivers from high transient currents during lamp commutation.

The capacitor across the battery has a preferred value of $0.1\,\mu\text{E}$. It serves to compensate for the impedance of the battery. Its value may have to be increased depending on the impedance of the battery.

The IMP803 may be enabled and disabled by a CMOS gate connected between $V_{\rm DD}$ and the junction of $R_{\rm EL}$ and $R_{\rm SW}$. The device is enabled when

R_{SW} is linked to V_{DD} and disabled to the IMP803 with high battery voltages.

d is a b l e d when R_{SW} is connected to V_{DD}. Resistor

connected to $V_{\text{DD}}.$ Resistor R_{EL} may be connected to V_{DD} or to the output of the gate.

1990(005

Source: Data sheet 'IMP803 high-voltage EL lamp driver' (IMP, Inc.) (www.impweb.com)

Applications

- → GPS units; pagers, cellular phones
- → Handheld computers
- → Safety illumination
- → Portable instrumentation
- → Battery-operated displays
- → Liquid-crystal display (LCD) panels

Pin descriptions

Nr.	Name	Function
1	V_{DD}	Positive voltage supply for the IMP803. Inductor L may be connected here or to a separate unregulated supply.
2	R _{SW-OSC}	Switch-mode resistor pin. Switching frequency is determined by an external resistor, R_{sw} .
3	$C_{\mathbb{S}}$	Boost converter storage capacitor. The voltage across the EL lamp is equal to twice the voltage at C_s .
4	L _X	Connection to flyback inductance L.
5	GND	Ground pin.
6	V _B	EL lamp drive. The lamp is connected in a high-voltage bridge circuit with $V_{\rm B}$ providing the complementary connection to $V_{\rm A}$. The peak-to-peak a.c. voltage across the EL lamp is thus two times $V_{\rm CS}$
7	V_A	EL lamp drive (see above).
8	R _{EL-OSC}	The EL lamp oscillator frequency setting pin. The oscillator frequency is controlled by external resistor $R_{\rm FL}$.

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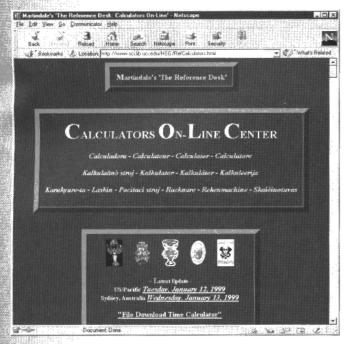
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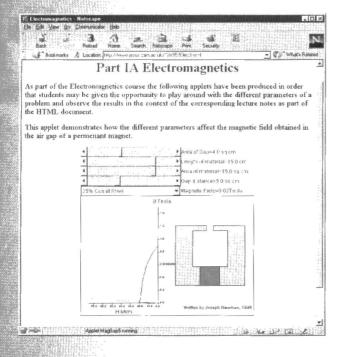
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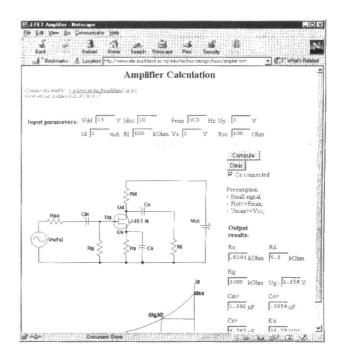
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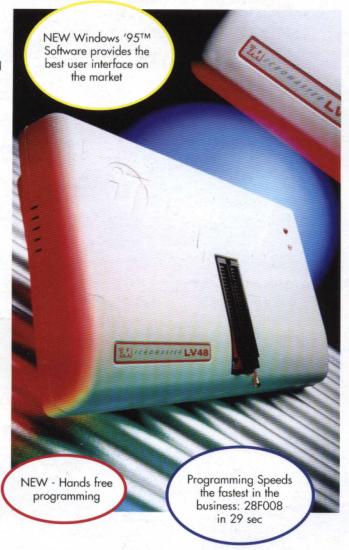




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